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The Nation.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 9, 1885.

The Week.

Who would have imagined, ten years ago, that in the summer of 1885 the Republican party would be so short of great men that it would be unanimously and fervidly chanting praises to John A. Logan? Yet that is what it is doing. The whole party press is expressing its delight with the speeches at the recent Boston banquet, and is holding up Logan's views of the principles of the party as the true and only ones. In fact, there is a genuine Logan boom abroad in the party, and he himself has probably little doubt that it will give him the Republican nomination for the Presidency in 1888. And why shouldn't he have it? If the sort of principles which he proclaims are just the sort which the Republican party likes—if they are, as an admiring Blaine editor in Boston calls them, "true Republican ozone"—then he is the man to lead the party when, "with visor down and lance in rest," it enters the field again in 1888, with the dear old bloody shirt as its ensign.

But how queer it all is! It is only a little more than a year since Blaine was nominated for the Presidency as the greatest leader not only in his party but in the history of all parties everywhere, and Logan's nomination for the second place was looked upon, not as a gain to the ticket, but as something to be explained and apologized for. Logan's name was, in fact, regarded then as standing for principles with which the Republican party had very little sympathy. Now Blaine's name passes entirely without mention at a great Logan banquet in Boston. Not one of all the orators even mentions him. "Are we so soon forgotten when we are gone?"—Mr. Blaine may be asking himself this question. At any rate, his friends are asking it for him. One of the most devoted of his followers, Congressman Boutelle, has asked the Executive Committee of the Grand Army of the Republic why Mr. Blaine was not invited to attend the recent reunion in Portland, and has been told that it was because such an invitation would not have been in a line with the traditions and practices of the Grand Army, since such invitations are never extended to civilians other than those who hold high official positions. Mr. Boutelle's manner of "demanding" an explanation is very amusing. Why does he not address a similar demand to the organizers of the Boston banquet, and also ask the speakers at that festival what they meant by ignoring the existence of the party's leader in the last campaign? The reasons for the sudden descent from Blaine to Logan are easily discernible, but what we should like to see would be the explanations of it which Senator Hoar, ex-Governor Long, Henry Cabot Lodge, and others of the new Logan disciples would be able to give.

We do not believe the custom of discussing the public utterances of Senator George F. Hoar, to which the Boston papers still adhere

with curious tenacity, will be long kept up. In a recent speech he laid down the startling doctrine that President Cleveland was bound either to keep in office Meade, the Copiah County murderer, in Mississippi, or "to step out of the Presidential chair himself." This simply showed that this unfortunate jurist was in need of a physician; but the Boston *Advertiser* breaches it by regular logical approaches, reducing the Senator, of course, to absurdity very quickly; but is it worth while? It shows that he maintained in 1876 that President Hayes had nothing whatever to do with the means by which he was elected, as long as his title was technically good. But what of it? What connection is there in Mr. Hoar's mind between what he says this year and what he said last year? He said in 1877 that "he had little respect for weak and gushing platitudes," but why should this prevent his producing them himself in half-pound packages in 1885? He also said this in 1877:

"The President has also acted wisely in inviting the cooperation in his Administration of a distinguished Democrat of the South, honored by his own party and section, who accepts and supports in good faith all the results of the war. In not deeming a share in the rebellion reason for perpetual exclusion from public office of those who accepted honestly and heartily these results, President Hayes but follows the example set by General Grant in the cases of Attorney-General Akerman and General Longstreet. The great victory of the Union arms was achieved, not to make the men of the South dependents, but only equals; not to bring them to your feet, but only to your side. You conquered only to achieve a fuller and more perfect Union; not that you might have vassal States or subject citizens. It was asked the other day, in this hall, if it is to be tolerated that a Union and a rebel general should be seen standing together on the same platform. I answer yes, if that platform be made up of the unity of the republic and the three amendments to the Constitution."

Now, however, eight years later, he is reviling President Cleveland for acting on his own doctrine. But why not? The only thing which keeps a public man from these follies is the possession of a sound mind and a good stock of settled convictions. These, apparently, Senator Hoar has not now, if he ever had. Consequently his speeches are simply noises, which, like the cries of the lower animals, express pain or pleasure, but do not contain propositions worth refutation.

The Bourbons among the Republicans—and they seem to number a large proportion of the party—cannot conceal their disappointment and disgust at the refusal of the Administration to make the "clean sweep" which they have at last tired of predicting. Some, even of those who still hold Federal offices, are such devoted believers in the spoils doctrine of politics that they would rather be removed immediately than have any doubt thrown upon the application by their party, when it recovers power, of the Jacksonian doctrine about the rights of the victors. For example, Mr. Hendee, of Vermont, formerly a member of Congress, and now Bank Examiner for the State, is quoted as saying that he thinks his office fairly belongs to the Democrats, and that he believes that "if the Republicans come into power in 1888, they will not leave a single Democrat in a Federal place." Mr. Hendee's posi-

tion will be heartily endorsed by the Democrats who believe that the election of Cleveland is sufficient reason for straightway turning out every Republican office-holder in the land. It is interesting to observe the steady drift toward union on the spoils platform of the Bourbons of both the old parties, while at the same time liberal-minded Republicans are coming every month more heartily to endorse the efforts of a Democratic Administration to enforce business principles in the conduct of the Government.

President Cleveland has performed another act of poetic justice, as well as of public duty, in recalling Mr. B. Platt Carpenter from the Governorship of Montana and appointing in his place a resident of the Territory. What makes it poetic justice is, that in doing this he is carrying out in practice the eighteenth plank of the last Republican national platform, which said:

"That the appointments by the President to offices in the Territories should be made from the bona-fide citizens and residents of the Territories wherein they are to serve."

President Arthur then furnished the world with a startling illustration both of the value of Republican platforms and of his own notions of public duty, by appointing Platt Carpenter to the Governorship of Montana, Carpenter being at the time not only a resident, but a very worthless politician, of New York. He turned his delegation over to Folger in the Convention of 1882, and was rewarded by nomination for the Lieutenant-Governorship, but was more badly beaten than even Folger himself, so something else had to be done for him, and he got the Governorship of Montana. The incident is well worth study as an example of the value of the Republican party in its later days as a reformatory agency, and as an explanation of the fondness of the leaders for "the bloody shirt."

Four months have justified our belief that the President knew what he was about when he picked out his Secretary of the Treasury. Whatever may have been Mr. Manning's notions about civil-service reform as a theory, a very little experience as head of the Department was enough to make him a civil-service reformer in practice. The simple truth is, that no man can go to Washington, as Mr. Manning did, with a sincere ambition to make a reputation as an executive officer, and not find himself compelled, by the very nature of his position, to adopt business principles as the basis of his action. Mr. Manning gave convincing proof of his conversion when he took in hand that "special preserve of patronage and political influence" under Republican Secretaries, the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, with its 1,200 employees not subject to the Civil-Service Law, and placed over it that eminent exemplar of reform methods, Mr. E. O. Graves. In the same line has been his course in refusing to make changes in important offices in the Department unless there were good reasons for change, as illustrated by the fact that out of more than seventy chiefs of division whom he

found in office only fifteen have been dismissed, and these for inefficiency or even grosser offences. The last straw for the Republican organs in Mr. Manning's case was his prompt action in the Kellar matter the other day, and his unmistakable declaration, "I intend at this department shall strictly observe the Civil-Service Law." On the eve of a campaign in which the sham character of the Administration's civil-service reform is to be the chief plank, there is a heartlessness about Mr. Manning's course which must make the Republican managers lose their confidence in human nature.

Secretary Manning's letter to the Collector, authorizing him to allow the Cunard and French steamship companies to resume the old practice of landing passengers from Europe at their docks, means the ultimate downfall of the whole Barge Office system, since the other transatlantic lines will have to follow suit sooner or later. No more successful means of causing delay, discomfort, and unnecessary expense could well have been devised than this scheme of transferring passengers and baggage at quarantine and passing them through an examining office on shore. There was nothing to be said in favor of it by anybody, except—and it is a very important exception—the men who got the contract for the transfer and the monopoly of handling the baggage after it reached the office. This latter industry has been conducted by that well-known philanthropist, Mr. "Barney" Biglin, in the unselfish spirit which has always characterized his efforts in behalf of the public; and the calumnies heaped upon his head by forced patrons of his baggage wagons produced no effect so long as a Republican Administration was in power. The refusal of a Democratic Secretary of the Treasury to turn over all incoming passengers to his tender mercies justifies the worst fears which "Barney" and his fellows have entertained as to the disastrous effects of a change at Washington upon the "business interests" of the country.

There is a flavor of humor rarely found in official documents about Secretary Whitney's explanation of his reasons for revoking his predecessor's famous order, forbidding naval officers attached to cruising vessels from having their families near them when they are on foreign stations. So far as we are aware, this was the first time that the United States Government ever assumed to dictate that a woman should have a "fixed place of abode," and to order that she should not go to "more convenient points" for visiting a vessel on which her husband chanced to be employed. The grim absurdity of such a rule has evidently impressed Mr. Whitney. He says that it was found impossible to enforce the order, and that it was a difficult matter to determine the degree of punishment proper for an officer by reason of his wife's violation of the regulation, since "the degree of control, and hence the degree of responsibility, is found to vary greatly in different families." The idea that a Secretary of the Navy could keep a woman from going to the other side of the world if she had made up her mind to go, would hardly have occurred to anybody but "Bill" Chandler or Sir Joseph Porter.

A fortnight ago a ship arrived in this port from Calcutta, and moored on the Brooklyn side of the East River. Among her crew were two Chinamen, who had shipped for the voyage at Calcutta. The captain knew about the existence of an anti-Chinese law in this country, but was not clear as to its scope. He therefore immediately communicated with the United States District Attorney for Brooklyn, and the Chinamen were sent to jail, pending a decision of the question whether they had a right to be at large in this "land of the free." The United States Commissioner rendered his decision on Friday. He holds that, since the men did not come to this country as "laborers," but as seamen intending to continue following the sea, they may lawfully have a reasonable period of liberty to select the vessel on which they will next ship, but that if they should try to change their vocation and remain in the United States as laborers, they would immediately become amenable to the exclusion act. This is good law, for aught that we can see, but one cannot help wondering what must be the notions about Western civilization which these Eastern "heathen" must imbibe.

There is something very nearly approaching the comic in the report of the United States South American Commission, of its conference with the President of Chili. They asked him for "a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation with the United States," but he answered, with the "horse-sense" which we are in the habit of regarding as a peculiarly North American attribute, that "amity" toward the United States already existed in Chili and could not be increased by a treaty; and as to commerce and navigation, the Chilians carried on both commerce and navigation wherever they paid best, and could not be induced to surrender this privilege by any special agreement. The notion that when we trade with a foreign nation it must be under a treaty, and that we cannot trade profitably with any nation smaller than ourselves without a treaty, is one which is worthier of the old ladies of Cranford than American dealers. President Santa Maria, however, fell in with the idea of a common silver dollar. When asked what he thought was the best means of increasing trade between Chili and the United States, he, of course, fell back on the well-known maxim of common life, that trade always increases when both parties find they make money by it. No power on earth can increase trade in any other way. In other words, the agencies which would increase trade between Chili and the United States are those, and no others, which increase it between New York and Massachusetts.

After all the commonplaces regarding the rights of labor and capital are exhausted upon the Chicago car-drivers' and conductors' strike, the question will come home to the people of that great commercial centre: "What are we doing—what are we thinking about?" The strike began more than a week ago. The company had discharged half-a-dozen of its employees on charges of inefficiency. The Car-Drivers' Union decided off-hand that those persons were not inefficient, and that they had been discharged because they were leaders of

the Union and had made themselves prominent in presenting grievances to the company. They insisted that the men should be reinstated, and when the company refused they struck. So far, so good. They had the same right to abandon their work that the company had to dispense with the services of any of their number. But they resorted to violence in order to prevent other laboring men from taking the places which they had voluntarily abandoned. The Mayor of the city was appealed to by both sides—by the company to afford protection to life and property and by the strikers to "keep hands off and see fair play." The Mayor's action was not very energetic, as is proved by the fact that more than a week has passed without the restoration of order. The law has been suspended for that period as to the Chicago West Division Railway Company. Theoretically, the Mayor is liable to grave censure; but in fact he has moved quite as rapidly as public opinion enabled him to do. When the strike began, people regarded it as a pretty good joke. Immediately the streets upon which the horse-cars ran were filled with every species of vehicle which could carry passengers, to take up the suspended traffic at ten cents per head. Express wagons, trucks, old discarded omnibuses, grocers' carts, dry-goods delivery wagons, and everything that would go on wheels crowded these thoroughfares, decorated with all sorts of signs and chalk marks in the utmost liberty of grammar and spelling. Men and women crowded these vehicles, some standing up, some sitting on chairs and camp-stools, some with their legs hanging over the rear boards, and others clutching at the cart's tail in the crowded street to climb on board. These scenes added to the general hilarity, in which the discommoded passengers joined. It seemed like a suddenly improvised carnival, in which everybody was allowed to be as ridiculous as he pleased. The weather was fine, and there was a general disposition to cheer the strikers. The press was singularly lenient in its dealing with the affair. If the Mayor had exercised his full powers by reading the riot act, giving the rioters five minutes to disperse, and then firing with ball cartridges at all who disobeyed, he would have been condemned by four-fifths of the population of all classes.

There is something really remarkable about the stupidity which characterizes the management of the Ohio campaign on the part of the Republicans. They began by constructing a bloody-shirt platform, the underpinning of which is steadily falling away as month after month shows the condition of the blacks in the South improving and the relations of the two races growing more harmonious. Their candidate for Governor next administered a slap in the face to all independent-minded men—and even in Ohio there are now men who do a little thinking in politics for themselves—by ranting about "the idiocy of Mugwumpery," and ridiculing "men of the George William Curtis school, who part their hair in the middle." Now their chief organ is attacking the Prohibitionists with hammer and tongs, pitching into the newspaper which they publish in the most violent way, and declaring that its language is "just such as might be expected from

a professional Prohibitory politician who had hired himself to the Democratic party for a summer's dirty work, and had started in to earn an advance of salary." All this, too, at a time when voters are less amenable to discipline than ever before during the present generation. In short, if the Republican managers in Ohio had deliberately set out to drive away support from their ticket this year, it is difficult to see how they could have devised more efficacious means of reaching this end than those which they have actually adopted.

Jeremiah O'Donovan Rossa, as he appeared on the witness stand in the trial of Mrs. Dudley, did not produce the impression of being the able and devilish machinator the English editors and authorities picture him. He is simply a thick-headed Celt, with an evident sense of humor and an appreciation of the good things of this world which can be purchased with the earnings of servant girls. Of all the grotesque incidents connected with the Irish agitation, the elevation of Rossa by newspaper notoriety to the position of the leading spirit of the dynamiters, is the most extraordinary. The two things upon which Rossa, and the band of comedians who frequent the office of his newspaper, probably spend least of the money which they collect, are the cause of Ireland and soap and water.

There was evidently some method in Mrs. Dudley's madness, for she put some puzzling questions to the prosecuting officer in her examination in her trial for shooting O'Donovan Rossa—particularly when she asked Mr. Nicoll "why he didn't try him (O'Donovan) and save her the trouble." To Mr. Nicoll's answer, "Well, we have tried to get a complaint within the law against him," her reply was excellent: "Pardon me, but I don't think there has been any great effort. His paper is in itself sufficient evidence against him. Why, sir, it's a standing incentive to murder." This is strictly and literally true. The man makes a living in a great city by advising people every week to commit murder, and by pretending to collect money to pay the cost of it, although the Penal Code makes a person concerned in the commission of a crime, "whether he directly commits the act constituting the offence, or aids and abets in its commission, and whether present or absent, and who directly or indirectly counsels, commands, or induces, or procures another to commit a crime"—a principal party to such crime. O'Donovan has publicly during the past four or five years boasted of having counselled, commanded, induced, or procured at least a dozen crimes. The District-Attorney has time enough to carry the case of Munsell the juror to the Court of Appeals, but he has not time, apparently, to break up O'Donovan's den.

Sir John Macdonald has won in his long contest over the Franchise Bill in the Dominion Parliament. The Opposition made a strong fight against the measure from the first, but the Government had a large and trustworthy majority, and it was all along evidently only a question of time when it would carry its point. The bill gives the right to vote to Indians in all the provinces, except British Columbia

and the Northwest Territories, and, as most of them live on reserves, makes them merely the tools of agents appointed by the Government. Still more objectionable is the creation of a class of "revising barristers" to prepare the voters' lists, who are given almost tyrannical powers, which they may be trusted to use for the benefit of the authorities by whom they are appointed. The property qualification in some of the provinces is increased, and there are other provisions intended to weaken the Opposition party. The final vote was taken late on Friday night, or, rather, early on Saturday morning, and after it was announced, Sir Richard Cartwright, leader of the Opposition, quietly remarked, "It is the Fourth of July—a fit day on which to disfranchise your own countrymen." Two of the Conservative members voted with the Opposition.

The programme presented to the House of Lords on Monday by Lord Salisbury might have been presented by Mr. Gladstone. He literally "said ditto to Mr. Burke," or, in other words, announced that he would, as far as was possible with the time at his disposal, carry out the plans of the Liberals which he has so fiercely denounced. The one difficult part of his task will, in fact, be to keep his feather-headed recruit, Lord Randolph Churchill, whose "air of an experienced statesman" amused the House of Commons on Monday, from committing some folly or indiscretion between now and November, when the farce will probably come to an end. It is somewhat ominous that Woodstock, Lord Randolph's constituency, will then disappear from the list of English boroughs. There will, indeed, be no boroughs under the new act which can be canvassed by well-dressed ladies in pony phaetons.

The chief anxiety of the Liberals in England just now is about Mr. Gladstone's voice. Were this still good, another Midlothian campaign might be expected from him; but the Liberal Committee there have passed resolutions declaring that, joyfully as the Liberals of the county would again receive him and hear him, they will take care that, in case he is unable to appear, his canvass shall not suffer by his absence. His voice, which is literally "the bugle horn" of the Liberal party, and every blast of it "worth 10,000 men," has always been magnificent, and is still quite equal to any demands which the House of Commons may make on it, but it is feared that it will never again be capable of filling a very large room or reaching a great crowd in the open air. The Liberals, in the meantime, in spite of the little Tory successes at Wakefield and Woodstock, have no doubt of the results of the great conflict before the new constituencies in November. They are encouraged by the ease with which Lord Randolph Churchill has pushed Sir Stafford Northcote up into the House of Lords, because they know that no combination in which Lord Randolph is powerful can long hold together, owing to the badness of his temper. They count, moreover, on forty-five out of the fifty-nine members of the new London districts, and they expect to carry Essex, Cheshire, and Lancashire among the counties, and most of the great northern cities.

The utterances of Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Chamberlain on the Irish question since they went out of office are curious reading, in view of the policy which even the Liberal party has persistently pursued toward Ireland ever since Mr. Gladstone came first into power. It has redressed several grievances, some of them very serious, but it has left untouched the fundamental one which Mr. Chamberlain describes so graphically—the refusal to allow the Irish to manage their own affairs either in small things or great, and the persistence in governing the island through the "English gentleman," he being probably less fit to govern a dependency, except through military law, than any educated man of any civilized country. For this evil—for the steady denial to the Irish of all chance to learn politics at all—the remedy of even a Yorkshire Quaker like Mr. W. E. Forster was simply arbitrary arrest and imprisonment on a great scale; and even his insolence of manner, while quartered in Dublin as Irish Secretary, was worthy of a Prussian cavalry brigadier in active service. Earl Spencer is probably the last Lord-Lieutenant whose policy will be defended in England by Liberals, on the ground that, being "an English gentleman," there is no need to mind what the Irish say against him.

Letters from the Mahdi have been received in Cairo, in which he says he is certainly coming to that place before long, and he has issued twelve commandments in anticipation of his arrival. The principal one directs the killing of all infidels unless they turn Musulman and pay taxes. The press, also, is to be suppressed, with the exception of one newspaper which he will edit himself—probably as striking a testimonial to the power of the press as was ever uttered. His paper will doubtless be what we call here "a religious weekly," but will certainly have neither a "secular department" nor a "publisher's department." It will be wholly religious, and will handle the sceptics without gloves.

The result of the *Pall Mall Gazette's* venture in exposing the traffic in young girls is still uncertain, but it will probably, like nearly all such exposures, do more harm than good. It was perhaps suggested by, or is at all events in the line of, the article which Mr. Spurgeon has published on the same subject in the *Monthly Review*, but will be ascribed, as Spurgeon's article will not be, to a desire to make a sensation and "sell the paper." In fact, this is generally the object of newspaper revelations of this character, and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, as at present conducted, is by no means proof against the same sort of imputation. It may be set down as an axiom of reform that all such disclosures are, in their effect on the public mind and the public morals, to all intents and purposes what is known as "obscene literature." They are no more purifying than "scandal" on a great scale ever is, and they gratify precisely the same tastes and tendencies that scandal does. Neither men nor women have ever been improved by accounts of the dirty or disgraceful lives led by some of their outwardly respectable fellows. They are made pure by hearing about purity, and not by hearing about filth.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 1, to TUESDAY, July 7, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Wednesday appointed William Dorsheimer to be United States Attorney for the Southern District of New York, and Martin T. McMahon to be United States Marshal for the same district. The appointment of Mr. Dorsheimer was recommended, not very cordially, by Tammany Hall.

The President has removed B. Platt Carpenter, of New York, as Governor of Montana, and has appointed in his place Mr. Samuel T. Houser, of Montana. The appointment is made on the recommendation of Senator Vest, of Missouri.

On Friday Judge Lambert Tree, of Illinois, was appointed Minister to Belgium. He was a candidate for Senator after Morrison's withdrawal.

A despatch from Vienna on Wednesday said: "If the United States Government refuses to recall Mr. Keiley, the Austrian Government will formally decline to recognize him." On the other hand, the Government, it is said, will not withdraw Mr. Keiley, and if he is not accepted, the United States will go unrepresented at the Austrian court.

Mr. Malcolm Hay has resigned his position as First Assistant Postmaster-General. Mr. A. F. Stevenson, of Illinois, was appointed his successor, and on Monday assumed his office.

The Postmaster-General was recently asked whether all the country postmasters in Illinois are to be removed on so-called "trumped-up charges of offensive partisanship." The Postmaster-General replied that the postmasters who attend to their business need have no fear of removal, and that discharges for offensive partisanship would be made only upon conclusive evidence. He thought that under this policy a very considerable proportion of the country postmasters in Illinois would be permitted to serve out their terms.

Mr. Owen Kellar, of Caldwell, Ohio, who was certified by the Civil-Service Commission for appointment to a clerkship in the First Auditor's Office, was recently rejected by First Auditor Chenoweth on the ground that he was a Republican and was distasteful to Congressman Warner and other Democrats of his neighborhood. Mr. Kellar on Wednesday brought the facts in the matter to the attention of the Civil-Service Commission, by whom they were laid before the President. The Commissioners said the refusal to appoint Kellar appeared to be a violation of Rule 8, of the Civil-Service Law, which forbids any discrimination by the appointing officer on political grounds, and they further represented that the reception of recommendations by the Auditor from Congressman Warner that Kellar be not appointed, appeared to be in plain violation of the tenth section of the Civil-Service Act, which says that no recommendations shall be received from any member of the House of Representatives except as to the character of the applicant, by any person concerned in making any examination or appointment under the act. Early on Thursday, when the Commission were further considering the question, a letter was received from Secretary Manning in which he said: "I was not until last night fully informed of the circumstances connected with the Kellar affair. If you have Mr. Kellar's address, will you kindly advise him to report to me this morning for duty? I intend that this Department shall strictly observe the law." Mr. Kellar immediately assumed his place.

Secretary Manning has instructed Collector Hedden to permit the Cunard and French line steamers to land their passengers at their docks instead of at the Barge Office in this city.

Secretary Whitney has issued an order revoking Secretary Chandler's order of July 5, 1883, the famous "General Order No. 307," which declared that "naval officers attached to cruising war vessels, especially commanding

officers, are expected to leave their families at their usual fixed place of abode, and not to attempt to transfer them to more convenient points."

The South American Commission, under date of Santiago, May 14, has made its report to the Secretary of State on the result of its visit to Chili. The report, which was made public on Friday, describes the meeting of the President of Chili by the Commission, and says a series of propositions were submitted to him. It continues: "The first was that the old treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation between the United States and Chili, which long since was terminated, might be renewed with advantage to both countries. In reply to this the President said that he did not see any advantage to Chili in such a treaty, and was not disposed to enter into any further conventions with foreign countries. The second proposition involved the idea of a reciprocal commercial treaty between the two countries, under which special products of each should be admitted free of duty into the other when carried under the flag of either nation. This did not meet with any greater favor from President Santa Maria, who was not disposed to make reciprocity treaties. His people were at liberty to sell where they could get the best prices and buy where goods were the cheapest. The next topic seemed to be received with decided favor. It was touching the establishment of a common silver coin of the value of the United States gold dollar, to be coined by each of the American republics, of an equal degree of fineness, and to an amount which should be agreed on, to be legal tender in all commercial transactions between citizens of this hemisphere. The fourth proposition, which invited the views of the Government of Chili as to the practicability of holding a congress of delegates from all the American republics, to adopt measures to secure peace and promote prosperity among the nations of this hemisphere, met with disfavor. His Excellency could not see the advantage of such a gathering. Chili had learned by experience that nothing could be gained, and that the general welfare was not promoted by international conventions."

The Board of Visitors to the West Point Military Academy have submitted their annual report to the Secretary of War. In relation to the discipline of the Academy they report that, so far as the Board can learn, the requirements are reasonable. An appropriation of \$30,000 is recommended for a new gymnasium; \$5,000 for improving the cadet laundry; \$10,000 for improving the blacksmith and other shops; \$12,000 for removing the barracks for the cavalry detachment nearer the stables and riding hall; \$5,000 for changes in the library building; \$175,000 to make suitable provision for the departments of chemistry and philosophy.

Congressman Reuben Ellwood (Rep.), of the Fifth Illinois District, died on Wednesday at the age of sixty-four.

The Ohio Prohibitionists on Thursday nominated the Rev. A. B. Leonard for Governor. They adopted a platform demanding a prohibition amendment to the State Constitution, and opposing a license tax or any such regulation of the liquor traffic. It says friends of prohibition should not be controlled by either of the old parties, because both have shown themselves subservient to the liquor interest.

The publication by the Trenton *True American*, on Tuesday, of Peter H. Watson's memorandum of a conversation he is said to have overheard at the Continental Hotel in Philadelphia in December, 1878—in which, it is alleged, United States Senators Sewell (Rep.) and McPherson (Dem.) bargained away their respective parties for the Pennsylvania Railroad and for each other—has aroused widespread interest.

A Supreme Court jury in Chicago on Wednesday decided that Joseph C. Mackin did have something to do with furnishing bogus ballots, that he perjured himself when he said he did

not, and that five years in the penitentiary will be just punishment for his offence.

The Mormons at Salt Lake City on July 4, it is said by orders from the head of the Church, hung the United States flag at half-mast on public and private buildings, saying that the Fourth of July was a day of mourning to "this people, whose best men were in the penitentiary by virtue of Federal officials' perversion of all principles of law and liberty."

On Wednesday afternoon Mayor Grace, Comptroller Loew, and Rollin M. Squire, Commissioner of Public Works, met for the purpose of naming three Commissioners to devise a system for putting telegraph and telephone wires under ground. Mr. Loew and Mr. Squire combined against the Mayor and elected Jacob Hess (Republican machine manager), Theodore Moss, and Charles V. Loew (brother of the Comptroller).

Owing to a strike of West Side street-car drivers and conductors in Chicago on Wednesday, and the attempt of the company to run cars with new men, there were several riots. The cars were successfully run on Friday under heavy police protection, and continued to run in that way. On Tuesday all parties agreed to submit the dispute to arbitration. It is believed that the strike is over.

On Monday and Tuesday considerable excitement was caused in Cleveland by striking iron-workers. Workmen in two factories were, on Tuesday, compelled by the strikers to quit.

A sporadic case of yellow fever was reported on Sunday in New Orleans.

General Grant completed three weeks at Mt. McGregor on Tuesday. He expressed himself on that day as feeling stronger.

Henry H. Gorringer, late of the United States Navy, died in this city on Monday, in his forty-fifth year. He was born in Tobago, West Indies, and was the son of an English clergyman of the Established Church. Coming to this country at an early age, he entered the merchant marine service. The Rebellion breaking out, he obtained an appointment in the American navy as master's mate in October, 1862. He served in the Mississippi Squadron, taking part in many important engagements, and was frequently promoted for gallantry. Commander Gorringer was brought very prominently before the public in 1880 by his work in transporting to this country and erecting in Central Park the Egyptian obelisk, which was offered to this country by the Khedive. The task, which was very successfully performed, was one involving much engineering skill. He resigned from the navy several years ago, and was engaged in a private enterprise for the manufacture of iron ships.

FOREIGN.

The British Cabinet Council, on Wednesday, decided to entirely abandon coercion in Ireland, and to rely upon a strict administration of the general law. The Afghan question was the subject of a long conference on that day between the Marquis of Salisbury and Baron de Staal.

Under an agreement between Lord Salisbury and Prince Bismarck, the German naval demonstration against Zanzibar has been countermanded.

Lord Salisbury, in an interview with Baron de Staal, offered to resume the Afghan frontier negotiations at the point where they were closed by Earl Granville, on the condition that the convention include a Russian engagement to hold the frontier as a permanent limit. A commission from the British Foreign Office will meet a Russian commission to settle the remaining details of the delimitation this week. It is announced that the Marquis of Salisbury will soon introduce in the House of Lords a bill embodying the chief recommendations of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the sanitary condition of the houses of the poor, and to report upon the best means of housing them.

The London *Telegraph* on Monday published the scheme for the settlement of the Egyptian question originally proposed by the Earl of Northbrook, First Lord of the Admiralty in the late Cabinet, and says that it was favorably considered at the Cabinet council held last Saturday. It provides for the occupation of the Sudan by Turkish troops under British officers until the country is pacified, the abolition of slave raids and the export trade in slaves, the protection of legitimate trade, the payment of tribute by Egypt to the Sultan, and the recognition of his right of suzerainty over both Upper and Lower Egypt.

The British Parliament reassembled on Monday in the House of Commons. Mr. Bradlaugh, escorted by Mr. Labouchere and Mr. Burt, both Radicals, advanced to the table with the purpose of taking the oath. To this Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chancellor of the Exchequer, interposed an objection. He said the House was strongly of the feeling that Mr. Bradlaugh should not be allowed to go through the form of taking the oath. He then moved that Mr. Bradlaugh be refused permission to swear, and that the Sergeant-at-Arms be directed to exclude him from the precincts of the House unless he engaged not to disturb the proceedings. The motion was adopted by 263 to 219.

In the House of Lords the Marquis of Salisbury made a statement to the effect that he would continue the policy adopted by Mr. Gladstone, in regard to the negotiations with Russia for the settlement of the frontier of Afghanistan.

The Marquis of Salisbury said that, as far as he had an opportunity of judging, the negotiations between Russia and England had been conducted with an earnest desire to arrive at an adequate settlement, but he was bound to say that the negotiations had not gone far enough to enable him to speak positively. He must ask their lordships not to attach too much importance to these negotiations as final and conclusive, even when concluded, as the whole condition of affairs in Central Asia was very unsatisfactory and uncertain. "We hope," he said, "to arrive at an amicable settlement of the difference in regard to the Zulfikar Pass, which England has promised the Amir will be included in Afghanistan. The promise must be kept. Whatever settlement may be arrived at, it is our duty skilfully to devise and vigorously to carry out measures for the defence of the Indian frontier. Furthermore, we should stretch out beyond, so that when the tide of war comes it will not come near our defences." In regard to Egypt he said: "It is necessary to establish such a state of things that if we eventually withdraw our protecting hand, Egypt will be left safe. One principle must animate us, namely, to so weigh our steps that once taken we must not retrace them. The military difficulty is a large one; the political difficulty is a greater one still." In regard to his domestic policy, Lord Salisbury said it was intended to avoid contentious legislation and to promote only such measures as were necessary. He hoped that the general elections would be held on November 17. In the House of Commons on Tuesday Sir Michael Hicks-Beach moved that the Government have precedence in the business of the House on Tuesdays and Wednesdays. Mr. Gladstone supported the motion, and it was adopted by 151 to 2.

After a spirited contest, Lord Randolph Churchill was returned to Parliament from Woodstock on Saturday. The borough is small. The feature of the occasion was the personal canvass conducted by Lady Randolph Churchill.

The Conservatives have organized a news agency in London, with a large capital. Its purpose is to provide the provinces with cheap Conservative newspapers and to prepare voters for the general election. It is proposed to issue cartoons and caricatures, and to publish literary matter of an attractive character on cheap terms and on the coöperative principle.

The Dublin *United Ireland* speaks with contempt of the local-government scheme which has been proposed by Mr. Chamberlain, the Minister of Commerce in the Cabinet of Mr. Gladstone. The National League has instructed the Irish people to be wakeful, and to vote for the election to Parliament of the Conservative candidates.

John Bright has written a letter to Deputy Passy, of Paris, in which he says: "If European nations would accept commercial liberty—that is, moderate or abolish customs—Europe might soon tend to an era of perpetual peace. At present all resources are swallowed up by military exigencies. The real interests of the masses are trodden under foot in deference to false notions of glory and national honor. I cannot help thinking that Europe is marching toward some great catastrophe of crushing weight. The military system cannot indefinitely be supported with patience, and the populations, driven to despair, may, possibly before long, sweep away the royalties and pretended statesmen who govern in their names. I hope your country and mine will remain at peace and be real friends."

The inaugural dinner of the Imperial American Club was given in London on Thursday evening. The object of the new club is to provide a centre in London where members of the principal clubs of the United States can meet persons of social standing in England, India, and the British colonies.

M. Waddington, French Ambassador at London, and his wife, have both refused to appear in mourning at the court ball, as prescribed by Queen Victoria because of the death of Prince Frederick Charles of Germany. M. Waddington's refusal was officially declared in a courteous note sent to her Majesty, in which he said he could not disobey the orders of his Government not to wear mourning for the death of any enemy of France.

Five hundred French Legitimists held a meeting in Paris on Sunday. They resolved to support the Comtesse de Chambord. The leading families of the Faubourg St. Germain are organizing a pilgrimage to Gratz, where Don Juan, father of Don Carlos, is staying. The Legitimists hail Don Juan as King, and denounce the Orleanists.

The French Socialists have issued their platform of principles for the coming electoral campaign. Among its demands are: The abolition of the Presidency; the abolition of the Senate; bestowal upon the Assembly of the power to dismiss Ministers of State; the settlement of all questions of war and of constitutional revision by popular vote; the confiscation of Church property; the separation of Church and State; the legal equality of illegitimate and legitimate children; the gradual abolition of standing armies; the free education of children at the public expense; the establishment of a progressive income tax; the gradual abolition of the public debt; reduction in the hours of labor; prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years of age; prison reform; the maintenance of disabled workmen at the public expense.

Père Hyacinthe lectured in Paris on Thursday evening on the "Secularization of the Pantheon." He protested against the abolition of the cross and the attempt to create antagonism between the spirit of revolution and the spirit of religion. The address was a splendid oratorical effort. Père Hyacinthe was continually interrupted by the wildly excited audience. When he had left the tribune he rushed back and exclaimed, "La croix, je vous le dis, c'est la liberté."

The French Chamber of Deputies on Monday ratified the Chinese treaty by a large majority.

General Bouet, who was formerly in command of the French forces in Tonquin, has returned to Marseilles. He expresses distrust of the efficacy of the Franco-Chinese treaty which was signed at Tientsin on June 9th, and considers that peace is not yet assured.

General Courcy, French commander in Anam, telegraphed on Sunday from Hué that the night after his arrival at that place the Anamite garrison made an unexpected attack upon his forces, but were repulsed. The French commander is taking necessary measures to repulse any further assault. The French lost 60 killed and wounded, and the Anamites 1,500. It is said in Paris that the position of General Courcy's force is a critical one, and that strong reinforcements have been sent to him from Tonquin. It is considered very probable that another campaign will have to be undertaken by the French, as the Anamites are resolved to oppose French protection.

Recent advices from Madagascar say: The Hovas were repulsed in an attack upon Fort Majunga. The interior of Madagascar is now threatened with famine. The rice crop has been destroyed.

Persians complain of a continual Russian violation of Persian territory and meddling with Persian affairs. Ten thousand Russians are massed at Askabad. A detachment leaves daily for Sarakhs and is replaced by fresh troops from the Caspian.

Advices from the Russian front on the Murghab state that the Afghans are massing troops on the frontier. This movement leads the Russians to believe that it is the intention of the Amir of Afghanistan to attempt an attack on the Russian forces in order to revenge the defeat of his troops in the battle of Panjdeh. The same advices say that the Sarikhs are also excited at the movements of the Afghan troops.

The German papers display the greatest ill-feeling over the Duke of Cambridge's claim to the regency of Brunswick, although eminent lawyers admit that his claim is undeniable if he chooses to assert it.

The Diet of Brunswick, by a unanimous vote, has adopted a resolution declaring that "the succession of the Duke of Cumberland to the throne of Brunswick would be incompatible with the peace and security of the German Empire."

Forty thousand hands are thrown out of employment through the masons' strike in Berlin. The masters refuse to negotiate with the men, and are beginning to employ foreigners.

King Alfonso, of Spain, on Thursday made a visit incognito to the cholera hospital at Aranjuez. In the meantime, the King's departure becoming known in Madrid, the Senate and Chamber of Deputies suspended their sittings and proceeded to the railway station, accompanied by the Queen, in the afternoon, to welcome him back. On alighting from the train he received a tremendous reception from the vast crowd that had assembled.

Reports from all points in Spain in which cholera exists show that the total number of new cases of cholera on Monday was 1,700, and of deaths from the disease 797.

The Mexican Railway Commissioner has reported that the Mexican Central Railroad has plainly and unequivocally forfeited its concession by making discriminating rates with roads in the United States to bring into Mexico goods at extraordinarily low rates, which discrimination is expressly forbidden by its contract.

Big Bear, the rebellious Northwest Indian, was captured on Friday morning near Carleton, by Sergeant Smart, of the mounted police. He says his band are on the way to Fort Carleton to surrender, having been some days without provisions.

The Newfoundland Government has imposed prohibitory duties of \$1 a barrel on flour and \$2 on pork. These duties discriminate against Canada as compared with the United States, and are imposed as a retaliation for a duty imposed upon fish and fish-oils coming in from Newfoundland to Canada. This duty was imposed in consequence of the termination of the fishery clauses of the Washington treaty and the revival of the American duties on Canadian fish and fish-oil.

THE FISHERIES.

No more apt illustration can be found of the folly of a protective tariff than that which the periodical recurrence of the fisheries dispute affords. If Canada and the United States were joined together by a political union, all commercial and industrial bickering between the two countries would cease at once. There would be no more cause of irritation than there is between the fishermen of New York and those of New Jersey. We should never hear of the shore line, and the headland, and the marine league, and the right to buy bait and to cure fish, and the other unpleasant controversies which are now vexing the statesmen of the two countries. If all these commercial questions could be put at rest as to both, by a political resolution in which both should unite, why may they not be settled by a treaty? Simply because the country has got its head set on the notion that everybody who produces anything that can be imported from abroad must be protected against foreign competition. The Treaty of Washington, which admitted fish and fish oil free of duty in return for the privileges accorded to American fishermen in Canadian waters, was forced upon the Gloucester fishermen against their protest, and they have never ceased to consider themselves badly used by it—not because they have any natural right to shut out other people's fish from the market, but because they see other people's iron, woollen, and cotton goods shut out for the benefit of American producers and manufacturers. In order to vindicate the "great principle" in behalf of fish and blubber, we gave notice of the termination of the fishery clauses of the treaty, and now we are in hot water again, as we have been half-a-dozen times before.

Yet it is within the recollection of most of our readers that for ten years prior to 1864 there was peace and content between the two countries under the Reciprocity Treaty. The products of the soil, the mines, the forests, and the waters were admitted free of duty into both countries, and nobody fancied himself harmed on either side of the border. But the Morrill tariff was passed in 1861, and straightway the lumbermen, the fishermen, the coal miners, the potato growers, the stone quarriers, and even the ice cutters began to clamor for protection. The friends of the Morrill tariff saw that they must maintain their consistency by abrogating the treaty as soon as its terms permitted. Being all-powerful in the councils of the nation, they gave notice of its termination, and then we had difficulties and disputes about fishing rights until the *Alabama* claims came up for settlement. In considering these claims, it was wisely decided to make one chapter of all outstanding differences between Great Britain and the United States. So the fisheries question and the San Juan Island question were included in the adjustment. England paid us \$15,000,000 for the rebel cruiser depredations and surrendered San Juan Island to us. We paid her \$5,000,000 for the use of the fisheries during the period which had elapsed since the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty, and agreed that in consideration of the future use

of these privileges, we would admit Canadian fish and oil free of duty—a grant which would have been advantageous to the nation at large, even without any corresponding grant on the other side.

It is too late now—the world has gone forward too far—to make a serious matter of the old Treaty of 1818, which the Gloucester fishermen denounce as a violation of their rights and a thing to be abrogated at all costs and hazards. This treaty conceded to the British authorities the right to forbid American fishing vessels from entering Canadian ports for any purpose except for shelter or to procure wood and water, thus cutting them off from all commercial privileges, and putting into the hands of the Canadians the power to drive our vessels to sea, and forbid the purchase of ice or bait or supplies. This extraordinary concession on our part constitutes the basis of most of the hostile legislation of the Dominion. They ought not to insist upon it. The right to sell is equal to the right to buy. If our fishermen gain anything by purchasing bait and supplies in their ports, the Canadian vendors gain as much. On the other hand, the right to buy is equal to the right to sell. If Canadian fishermen gain anything by selling their mackerel and cod in our markets, the American consumers gain as much. It is a poor rule which will not work both ways. What is wanted now is not a collection of ironclads on the fishing grounds to protect mediæval rights, and enforce an exploded mercantile idea, but an abandonment on both sides of a false principle, which assumes that the producers of a given article have a right to be protected, at the expense of the whole community, against foreign competition.

The abrogation of the Treaty of 1818, which the fishermen now call for, will of course bring up the question of the tariff, since they insist stoutly upon the enforcement of existing duties on fish, and even ask that the ridiculous Treasury regulations, which have multiplied and augmented the restrictions upon trade, shall be enacted into law. One of these regulations declares that "fish, fresh for consumption," which are free of duty under the general tariff, must not be frozen, since in order to make them fit for consumption, they must first be thawed. Frozen fish, therefore, are put in the same category as smoked or salted fish, and made dutiable at the rate of 50 cents per 100 pounds. Again, if the fish are delivered fresh and unfrozen in the American market, and are not immediately consumed, but are salted or smoked for future use, they become dutiable under the rulings of our wise and vigilant Treasury expounders. These regulations the fishermen insist upon having enacted into law at once, lest some present or future Secretary should take it into his head that fresh fish are all fish not smoked, dried, salted, or pickled. Whatever the most fanatical protectionists can conceive in the way of restrictions upon commerce they intend to urge upon the Government, demanding, as they say, "only the same protection that is afforded to every other producing industry." The corollary of such a demand is either a succession of "outrages" producing

national irritation and leading to armed hostilities, or the purchase on our part of the fishing privileges for which we paid \$5,000,000 a few years ago. We do not imagine that Minister Phelps, or Secretary Bayard, or President Cleveland, or the Congress of the United States will give their sanction to any policy which points to war, or to an annual appropriation of money from the Treasury to buy fishing rights, when they have before them the peaceful and cheap alternative presented by the treaties of 1854 and 1871. As to the decaying doctrine of protection, the time has come to hit it whenever it shows its head.

SOCIALISTIC TENDENCY OF ENGLISH RADICALISM.

UNTIL recently, England might have been regarded as the exception equally with ourselves to the rule of political change. But the wide extension of the suffrage that is about to take place can hardly fail to produce momentous results. No one can tell just what these results will be, but it is obvious that thoughtful men of both parties await them with a certain amount of apprehension. Undoubtedly the number of Radicals in Parliament will be largely increased, and every indication of the policy that they will favor is a matter of deep interest to the public. As Mr. Chamberlain, the late President of the Board of Trade, is perhaps the most influential representative of this party, his utterances are especially significant, and a recent speech of his before the "'80 Club" leaves no room for doubt as to the measures that he will advocate. Posing as a "friend of poor men," his attitude toward property has excited much alarm.

With great bluntness Mr. Chamberlain announces that the people at large have become or will become the source and depository of power, and that the "manual labor classes" in the vast majority of the constituencies will have a predominance of power. "Whether we like it or not, the wishes and the wants—aye, and the rights—of the whole people will have to be considered. All classes of politicians—Whigs, Tories, and Radicals—will have to recognize their masters and will have to obey their mandate." What the new masters will want, or at least what he is ready to tell them they want, is indicated in the following passages from his speech:

"The most fruitful field before reformers at the present time is to be found in the extension of the functions and authority of local government. Local government will bring you into contact with the masses. By its means you will be able to increase their comforts, to secure their health, to multiply the luxuries which they may enjoy in common, to carry out a vast coöperative system for mutual aid and support, to lessen the inequalities of our social system, and to raise the standard of all classes in the community. . . . It belongs to the State to protect the weak, to provide for the poor, to redress the inequalities of our social system, to alleviate the harsh conditions of the struggle for existence, and to raise the average enjoyments of the majority of the population. . . . I hold that every man who comes into the world has a natural right to life and a natural right to a fair enjoyment of life."

These are dangerous ideas to present to the new Democracy, but Mr. Chamberlain goes further. He maintains that as property has

been acquired under a system that has been oppressive to the poor, it ought to pay a "ransom." This formidable word he uses in what he calls its Scriptural sense, as meaning the compensation which a man has to pay for wrong-doing before he can be received into the congregation. "Society," he says, "owes a compensation to the poorer classes of this country. It ought to recognize that claim and pay it, and society must pay it before it can be admitted to have discharged its obligations." Moreover, "private charity is powerless; religious organizations can do nothing to remedy the evils which are so deep-seated in our social system."

The strongest protest called forth by Mr. Chamberlain's *pronunciamento* comes from an unexpected quarter and is inspired by a very noteworthy feeling. The important movement known by the most unfortunate and misleading name of "Christian Socialism" has no more earnest and persevering advocate than Thomas Hughes, and it is he who sounds the note of alarm. He foresees plainly that the offer of State aid, the suggestion that the holders of property must pay a "ransom" in order to be protected, and that the Government owes it to the poor "to secure their health and multiply their luxuries," involves the destruction of the coöperative movement, which he and those who think with him have done so much to build up. He says:

"Through all the early days of the movement, not only Maurice and Kingsley and their colleagues of the upper classes, but, among men still with us, Lloyd Jones, A. Greenwood, and other leaders of the working classes, insisted on every possible occasion that self-reliance and independence should be the keynote of the Socialist movement in England. They were to claim nothing but a fair field and no favor, and to show that with these they could work out the well-being of their own class. The result . . . has far exceeded the most sanguine forecasts of that day; and up to the present time the old principles have not been weakened or shaken. In the coöperative congresses held yearly at Whitsuntide, I do not remember a single instance in which any resolution has been carried pointing to designs on the rates or the consolidated fund, to bolster up our failures or help on our designs. It must not be supposed, however, that this result has been gained without constant and steady effort and pressure, or that there is no danger of backsliding. The present leaders are, I think, thoroughly sound, but I wish I could say as much for the 800,000 behind them."

There is no reason to suppose that Mr. Chamberlain's plan of a vast coöperative system of mutual support by means of local parliaments and aid from the rates will be presently carried out. But, as Mr. Hughes shows, the mere suggestion of it is fraught with danger, and though it may never succeed, it may wreck the plan that has hitherto been so successful. Mr. Hughes and many others of his stamp have passed their lives in developing and encouraging among the poor those virtues upon which all material well-being depends, and the greatness of their success must not be taken to imply that the work has been an easy one. The tendency to rely upon friendly aid, to dream of the interposition in our favor of some superior power, is a tendency that every human being who has work to accomplish must steadily resist. Whatever encourages men to believe that their "unfavorable conditions are to be alleviated" by any other means than their own exertions, is pernicious.

MONTAIGNE AS A TRAVELLER.—I.

MONTAIGNE as an essayist is far more widely known than Montaigne as a traveller. The diary of his seventeen-months' journey through Switzerland, Germany, and Italy has comparatively few readers, though this narrative amply repays careful and repeated perusal: what page with his sign-manual does not? Almost the first half of this journal, to be sure, is only, as it were, signed by him, and was written by the hand of an anonymous secretary, who reports not merely from but of his "master." But that the report was made for him exclusively, every line reveals, and it is rendered more rather than less interesting by presenting Montaigne in the personality of *il* instead of *je*. Yet the latest edition is of 1774. Hazlitt's extraordinarily inaccurate, though very readable, rendering is the only English translation; and though lately the Rev. W. Lucas Collins, in his somewhat clerical and unsympathetic little biography of Montaigne (in the Foreign Classics series), has given a dry résumé of the 'Travels,' yet even the most noteworthy passages in these old volumes are perhaps not too familiar to be worth recurring to.

A considerable portion of their contents one passes over rapidly, but with a rather droll interest, since it consists of frequent medical details of Montaigne's physical condition. The journey was probably undertaken for the sake of his health—for the sake of visiting the waters of Plombières, Baden, and Della Villa (near Lucerne), in the hope that they might avail something against the sufferings caused by his constitutional malady, the stone; but, whatever may have been the motive of his travels, his health was by no means his chief object of attention during his stay in foreign parts. His keenness of vision and his largeness of judgment are nowhere more apparent than when employed on points unfamiliar to him; and to learn what were the things he observed and how he observed them, is an admirable lesson in what is to be gained by contact with persons and customs of a different nationality from one's own.

In the essay on Vanity he says of travelling: "The soul is then continually exercised in remarking unknown and novel things; and I do not know a better school, as I have often said, wherein to fashion life, than to set before the mind incessantly the diversity of so many other lives, humors, and customs, and to make it relish so perpetual a variety of the forms of our nature." And he says in the essay "Un Traict de quelques Ambassadeurs": "I use in my travels this practice—in order always to learn something by conferring with others, which is one of the best schools possible—I lead those with whom I am conversing always to talk of the things which they know about." He carried this intention into matters outside personal intercourse. "M. de Montaigne," says his secretary, "in order entirely to enter into the diversity of manners and customs, had himself served everywhere in the fashion of each country, however troublesome he found it." The writer adds: "In Switzerland he said he was in no wise inconvenienced by it, save by having at table only a little half-foot cloth for a napkin, and this same cloth the Swiss do not even unfold during dinner." We appreciate how much this inconvenienced him when we recall that in the essay on Experience he says: "I could dine without a table-cloth; but, after the German fashion, without a clean napkin very incommodiously. I soil them more than they and the Italians do, and make but little use of spoon or fork." The last sentence makes it clear why the journal remarks, "They [the Swiss] always place on the table as many wooden spoons with silver handles as there are men, . . . and they scarcely ever put their hands to the dish."

In like manner, the confession in the same passage of the just-quoted essay, "I should be uneasy without a tester and curtains to my bed," explains the not infrequent description of the character of the hangings, or the lack of them, to the beds he lay in away from home.

But these small personalities—and such others as his liking for the German coverlets and the German stoves (cf. 'Essays,' III, 13)—entertaining as they are, and to a reader of the Essays doubly so and specially illustrative, are less interesting than the more thoughtful passages. The theological discussions we will not count among these, though it was not only at Isne that "M. de Montaigne, as was his custom, went immediately to find a theological doctor of this town to have a talk (*pour prendre langue*). It is rather such little remarks as this that are of interest:

"We were ill-lodged at the Eagle [at Constance], and we experienced from the landlord an instance of the barbarian-like license and assumption of the German character, respecting a quarrel between one of our footmen and our guide from Basle. And the matter coming before the judges to whom he went to complain, the provost of the place, who is an Italian gentleman settled and married there, and for a long time past a free burgher, told M. de Montaigne, on his inquiring whether his [the provost's] house-servants would be believed as witnesses in our favor, he answered, Yes, provided he dismissed them from his service; but that immediately after he could take them back again. This was a remarkable subtlety."

In spite of "la liberté et fierté barbare Allemanesque" of this landlord, Montaigne wrote as follows from Botzen to Francis Hotman (the celebrated French lawyer, whose life his pupils saved at the Massacre of St. Bartholemew), whom he had seen at Basle: "That he had such great pleasure in visiting Germany that he left it with great regret, even though it was into Italy he was going; that foreigners had to suffer here as elsewhere from the extortion of landlords, but he thought that that might be prevented by not putting one's self at the mercy of guides and interpreters, who sell travellers and share the profits. The rest all seemed to him full of ease and courtesy, and especially of justice and security." Sainte-Beuve speaks the truth in saying, "Il a l'esprit bien fait, et prend les gens parce qu'ils ont de bon." Previously at Brixen he had said—

"That he had all his life distrusted the judgments of others in discourse concerning the conveniences of foreign countries; each one relishing only what was after the arrangement of his fashion and the custom of his town, and he had made very little account of the warnings which travellers gave him; but in this place he marvelled more than ever at their folly, having heard, and especially on this journey, that the crossing of the Alps at this place was full of difficulties, the customs of the inhabitants strange, the roads impassable, the inns rude, the climate unbearable. As to the climate, he thanked God for having found it so soft, for it rather tended toward being too warm than too cold; and in all this journey up to this time he had had only three days of cold and about an hour of rain; in other respects, if he had to take his daughter anywhere, who is only eight years old, he would like as well to do it on this road as in an alley of his garden; and as to the inns, he never saw a country where they were so well placed and so admirable, being always situated in large towns, well furnished with provisions and wines, and at a cheaper rate than elsewhere."

To quote Sainte-Beuve again: "For Montaigne philosophe, travel was a perpetual refutation, in action and in picture, of the *préjugés de clocher* for which he had such great contempt."

He entered Italy from the Tyrol, coming first to Verona, where "he remarked on the seignory . . . maintaining entire the noble tombs of the poor seigneurs de l'Escale [della Scala]. It is true that our landlord . . . had been given possession of one of these tombs for his family." "The place they call the Arena he said was the most beautiful building he had ever

seen." This reminds one of Goethe's enthusiasm in beholding it—"das erste bedeutende Monument der alten Zeit das ich sehe, und so gut erhalten!" And of Evelyn's phrase about it—"This I esteem to be one of the noblest antiquities in Europe."

At Padua "we saw the schools of fencing, dancing, and riding, where there were more than a hundred French gentlemen, which M. de Montaigne considered a great disadvantage for the young men of our country who go there, since this society accustoms them to the manners and language of their own nation, and deprives them of the means of acquiring knowledge of foreigners." In like manner, at Rome, "M. de Montaigne was vexed at finding so great a number of Frenchmen here, that he found in the street no one scarcely who did not salute him in his own language." His stay at Venice was very short—apparently less than a week. He intended to return there and revisit all this part of the country at leisure: "he counted this present visit nothing, and what had induced him to undertake it was his extreme hungry eagerness to see this city. He said he could not have stayed quietly at Rome nor anywhere else in Italy if he had not been in Venice, and for this cause he had turned out of his road." He did not get there again—one regrets it as much as he could have done—but he had on this occasion "examined it in all its parts with extreme attention. Its system of government, its situation, the arsenal, the square of St. Mark, and the crowd of foreigners seemed to him the most remarkable things. . . . He said he found the city other than he imagined it, and a little less admirable." This sense of disappointment would probably have soon been lost, and we may so judge by what he experienced in Florence. The Journal there, soon after arriving, says (and the secretary is hardly expressing merely his own opinion): "I do not know why this city is surnamed *Beautiful* especially; it is beautiful; but without any superiority over Bologna, and but little over Ferrara, and is incomparably inferior to Venice." But eight months afterward, when he returned to Florence, Montaigne writes with his own hand: "After all, I must confess that it is with reason that Florence is called *La Bella*."

ENGLAND: THE MINISTERIAL CRISIS.

LONDON, June 23.

AFTER an interregnum of exactly a fortnight we have again, or we are on the point of having, a Ministry, for it is announced this morning that Lord Salisbury has now made such arrangements as to enable him to accept office. The tranquillity of the public mind during the absence of our Executive Government has honorably witnessed to the stability of English institutions. Everything has gone on as usual; and though there has been widespread and eager curiosity, there has been absolutely no excitement. Two temporary causes have contributed to this tranquillity. One is, the approach of the general election. It is felt that the real party struggle will come then, and that nothing which happens in the meantime can make much difference. Every one is, so to speak, saving his breath till the moment for that conflict arrives. The other is the fact that the most urgent and delicate problems of foreign policy had been settled—practically if not formally settled—shortly before the defeat of the Gladstone Ministry. When, in February last, they got a majority of only fourteen on the Vote of Censure then moved by the Opposition, there were many among them who counselled an immediate resignation: it is, indeed, rumored that the majority for retaining office was a very small one. In the fourteen weeks between that date and the 8th of June they

disposed, by an arrangement with France, of the pressing difficulties of Egyptian finance, they resolved on and have begun to carry out the evacuation of Sudan, and they have settled the question of the Afghan frontier by an agreement with Russia. In every one of these cases their policy is warmly attacked by many people in England; but even those who condemn it may be glad that the country was not left without a responsible Executive at the moment when these questions were pending, so that a few days' delay might have involved disastrous consequences. It is true that the arrangement with Russia is not yet formally complete; no one, however, supposes that Lord Salisbury, strongly as he has inveighed against Russian duplicity and the weak vacillation of the Cabinet, will now disturb what his predecessors have settled.

Your readers have heard from day to day of the various incidents of the Ministerial crisis—how Lord Salisbury at first hesitated to attempt to form a Ministry, then accepted the task, then, on more fully realizing the difficulties his lieutenants would have to face in the House of Commons, seemed on the point of abandoning it when the Liberal leaders refused the assurances he required, and finally resolved to go on without those assurances. I will not therefore recapitulate these incidents, but endeavor to indicate how the opinion of impartial men has viewed the position in each of its phases.

When the first surprise of the vote of June 8 had passed by, and men had laughed over the excuses made by the various Liberal members whose absence caused Mr. Gladstone's defeat, everybody asked, Ought the Tories to come in? Is it for the good of the country? Is it for their own party advantage?

Most sensible Tories, as well as Liberals, answered this last question in the negative. The very fact that the Ministry wished to go out, and gleefully welcomed the opportunity of doing so which the unexpected defeat gave them, was a reason why the Opposition should not take office. Office under present circumstances carries little power with it. It is tenure at sufferance; it will not enable them to inaugurate any new policy, foreign or domestic, because a hostile majority in the House of Commons can at once check them. It gives them no means of earning the confidence of the country and recommending themselves to the electors, because there are only four months from now to the elections, and only a few weeks left of the Parliamentary session. They must make—all ministries do make—some mistakes; and these mistakes will draw off public attention from the faults of their predecessors, giving the Liberals the advantage of making their own misdeeds forgotten behind invectives against the present rulers of the country. It is almost an axiom now in England that it is easier to attack than to defend a government, for the last three general elections have gone against the party then in power. Moreover, a ministry must present some appearance of unity, and must have a positive programme. Now, this is a serious difficulty for the Tories, who are much divided among themselves, and have so far abstained from putting forward any collective platform or policy, because they could not agree what it should be.

These grounds made the belief general that Lord Salisbury would refuse to form a Government, preferring to leave his opponents to "stew in their own juice" till the general election. Other counsels have prevailed; and though no formal statement has yet been made, there is little doubt what they are. The Opposition leaders felt a sort of shame at the notion of refusing office after they had so often sought to drive Mr. Gladstone from it. They might fear to be suspected of timidity on the one hand and factious-

ness on the other in declining to take up the load. They would seem to discredit themselves with the nation should they, after so often declaring that the Cabinet was ruining England, not interpose now to prevent the ruin from being carried further. These patriotic reasons were seconded by others of a more personal nature. There are many persons in the ranks of every party who have private objects to be served by its triumph. Some want to be peers, others to be baronets, others to be Privy Councillors. Others desire a subordinate place in the Government, if not for themselves, then for some relative or connection. Others have a hope that through a Minister of their party they may get preferment in some other direction for a son or nephew, perhaps a living, perhaps an inspectorship of factories or schools. Comparatively few as the posts are to which patronage extends, because with us all posts (except those few high political ones whose occupants go in and out with the Government) are held for good behavior, the hope of getting one is enough to influence a large number of persons, and to produce a sentiment not without weight on the minds of the party leaders. It has no doubt acted on Lord Salisbury and many of those around him, bringing home to them the truth of the maxim, attributed to Mr. Disraeli, that a party must be allowed to taste blood every now and then. If its fate is to be generally in opposition, the more reason for letting it have, when it can, a little of the reputation, and self-confidence, and standing in the country which comes from holding or having held the reins of power; and whatever Lord Salisbury's faults as a politician may be, no one can accuse him of want of courage. The very difficulty of the undertaking may have given it a sort of attraction for him. The Queen is believed to have urged upon him that it had become his duty. At these moments the personal influence of the Crown counts for a good deal. He probably knows—most Conservatives do know—that his prospects at the general election are dark; he may well think that it is as well to seize now that which is offered, since if things go on as at present, he is not likely to have a chance of getting office in December. There is, therefore, no reason for surprise at the result. What is odd is, to see both parties pleased. The Liberals are glad to be out, because they think their chances of coming back with a great majority improved. The Tories are glad to come in—at any rate because for the moment it makes them feel themselves more important; and the world at large is pleased, because it likes novelty, and wonders how the new men will behave themselves.

The difficulties which Lord Salisbury had to overcome did not arise wholly from his being in a minority in the House of Commons. He had jealousies to reconcile among his own followers, a small but active section of whom have been in a state of scarcely interrupted mutiny against Sir Stafford Northcote. Lord Randolph Churchill, who has more "flight" in him than any other three of the Opposition leaders, has long sought to depose Sir Stafford from his leadership, and, since he cannot immediately assume it himself, to push into it Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, a respectable Conservative country gentleman of industrious habits and a strong, though somewhat hard and narrow, intellect—far inferior to Sir S. Northcote in general knowledge, in Parliamentary experience, in argumentative fertility and ingenuity, but more effective in debate because he gives the impression of a more decided and persistent character. When the new Cabinet began to be formed, a struggle arose over the leadership of the House of Commons. Sir Stafford, of course, claimed it, but Lord R. Churchill,

as is commonly believed, made the deposition of Sir Stafford and promotion of Sir Michael Beach a condition of his adhesion. He has triumphed, and the late chief of the Opposition is accordingly dismissed to the honorable exile of the House of Lords, where he is to be consoled by being made, like Mr. Disraeli, an Earl. His amiability and unfailing good temper, joined to his abilities and long experience, had made him a general favorite in the House of Commons; and the regret expressed there accentuates the victory gained by his young enemy.

I reserve further remarks on the new Ministry till the distribution of the offices that form it has been finally settled. This does not seem to have been found a troublesome matter, once the leadership had been given to Sir Michael Beach and the claims of Lord R. Churchill to high office conceded. What thenceforth delayed the transfer of the seals of office was the wish of the Opposition chiefs to have some engagements from the outgoing Ministry as to their conduct during the remainder of the session. A full disclosure of the negotiations between the old and the new Cabinets has been promised by Mr. Gladstone. The point which chiefly fixes public interest here is that the demands of Lord Salisbury did not include any request to be assisted in passing a bill to renew the Irish Crimes Act, or otherwise to deal with criminal law in Ireland. This was the rock on which the Gladstone Ministry would have split had they sailed on for a few days longer. It was of course the chief difficulty which the Tory Government had to contemplate. Most of their supporters, including the solid country gentlemen who still form the backbone of their party, desired to see the Crimes Act renewed, and were prepared to denounce Mr. Gladstone had he not proposed the renewal. But Lord R. Churchill, and those with him endeavoring to found the party of Tory democracy, were against exceptional legislation for Ireland, and willing to bid against the Radicals in a policy of friendliness and trustfulness toward the Irish people. Lord Salisbury might have doubted long as to his course, being himself in favor of coercive measures, had not the prospect of carrying any Crimes Bill been so small. It will be the 5th or 6th of July before Parliament can again resume active work, and in the few weeks that remain small was the chance of carrying a bill which the followers of Mr. Parnell would resist by every engine of obstruction, and for which, against them and some two-thirds of the Liberal party, only a very small majority could have been obtained. He has therefore a good excuse for not attempting to legislate on this subject; and the tacit alliance against the Whigs which has existed between the Tory party and the Irish Nationalists may possibly last for some time longer. It has been an alliance only for the purpose of turning the Whigs out; but as they are still the majority the reasons for it subsist until after the general election, when there will be a new departure in all political relations.

To one person at any rate the change of Ministry has come just in time. Mr. Gladstone had become pale, weak, and feeble-looking during the weeks of anxiety between Easter and Whitsuntide. He is now again vigorous and cheerful, looking as if he were prepared to face a new Parliament and perhaps a new call to office.

Y.

MADAME DE BEAUMONT.

PARIS, June 18, 1885.

THOSE who have read the correspondence of Joubert, as well as those who have read Chateaubriand's 'Mémoires d'Outre Tombe,' are acquainted with Mme. de Beaumont. She was one of the survivors of the aristocratic society of the

eighteenth century, who became a sort of connecting link between the ancient and the new régime. M. Bardoux has just written her life, and though his work cannot be much praised in a literary sense, it has a real value as an historical and social document. M. Bardoux is a lawyer of Clermont-Ferrand, who was returned in 1871 to the Constituent Assembly at Versailles. He belongs now to the Senate, and is one of those moderate Republicans who constitute what we call the Left Centre, a group once important, during the life of M. Thiers and of M. Dufaure, but now almost evanescent and forgotten. It would be difficult to say why M. Bardoux, a business man and a lawyer, chose Mme. de Beaumont as a heroine. He feels himself that he runs the risk of being compared to the clerks of the custom-house who placed their heavy lead on the light gauze of Venice. He has borrowed nothing of the grace, the *naturel*, the refinement of the time and the society which have engrossed his attention; his style is chaotic, fatiguing, often incorrect. He speaks somewhere of the women who have had themselves printed (*qui se sont fait imprimer*), and ranks Mme. de Sévigné among them, while every bibliophilist knows that Mme. de Sévigné's letters were printed after her death (the first collection of her letters is dated 1736). Sometimes M. Bardoux indulges in generalities, and then he falls into an extraordinary bathos, and becomes extremely commonplace. Joseph Prudhomme himself might have said, in speaking of the manners of good society: "People had but one fear, which was not to be worthy enough of the consideration of those who listened to them; and this fear was far from being unfavorable to the development of the faculties." I could cite a hundred, if not a thousand, phrases of this sort.

Pauline de Montmorin belonged to one of the oldest and best families of Auvergne. François de Montmorin was governor of the province at the time of the Saint-Bartholomew massacre, and wrote this famous letter to Charles IX.: "Sire, I have received an order from your Majesty to put to death all the Protestants in my province. I have too much respect for your Majesty not to suppose that these letters are suppositions; and if, which Heaven forbid, the order really emanates from your Majesty, I respect your Majesty too much to obey it." The father of Mme. de Beaumont, the Count of Montmorin-Saint-Hérem, belonged to the younger branch. Her mother belonged to the De Tanes family, of Piedmontese origin, established in Auvergne. Pauline was the second daughter. Her sister Victoria was married in 1787 to M. de la Luzerne. In 1778 M. de Montmorin, a personal friend and favorite of Louis XVI., was sent as ambassador to Madrid. He took part in the negotiations which ended in 1783 in the preliminaries of the peace signed between France and Great Britain on the one side, and between Spain and Great Britain on the other, and which were followed on the 3d of September by the recognition of the independence of the United States. After six years spent in Spain, Montmorin asked leave to return to France, and was sent to Brittany as commander of the troops of the province.

Pauline de Montmorin had been brought up by her aunt in her early youth; she had afterward been sent to the Convent of Fontevault, and afterward to the Convent of Penthémont in Paris, the preferred school of the nobility. (Penthémont is now one of the Protestant churches of the capital.) She was married very young to M. de Beaumont; she was almost a child. She was, as usual, presented at court after her marriage; soon afterward M. de Beaumont left her, and continued a life of dissipation which became so scandalous that M. de Montmorin was obliged to threaten him with a *lettre de cachet*. After the death of

the Comte de Vergennes (1787) Louis XVI. chose M. de Montmorin as Minister of Foreign Affairs. His daughter, Mme. de Beaumont, was named *dame pour accompagner* of Madame, the wife of the Comte de Provence; she did the honors of her father's salon. The 'Correspondance secrète' speaks of her intimacy at that period with the Abbé Louis, who had been presented to her by another famous abbot, M. de Talleyrand-Périgord. Two years afterward the Abbé Louis assisted Talleyrand at the celebration of the mass on the Champ de Mars at the famous feast of the Federation of the National Guards. She was very intimate also with François de Pange, the Trudaines, Suard, Mme. de Krüdener, André Chénier. The two Trudaines were *Conseillers au Parlement*, both young, patrons of arts and of letters, and imbued with philosophical ideas and with the doctrines of the economists.

François de Pange is well known to the readers of André Chénier. The names of Trudaine and of Pange are found often in his elegies and his epistles. When Necker became the colleague of M. de Montmorin, Madame de Beaumont became acquainted with Madame de Staël and with her circle of friends. Ruthière had a seal engraved for Madame de Beaumont, with this device: "Un souffle m'agite et rien ne m'ébranle." This device is an exact description of a person physically very feeble and morally very strong. Madame de Krüdener (so well known afterward by her influence over the Emperor of Russia) had at that time a great passion for the Academician Suard. She had a sister who was a nun, and visited her in her convent; from this convent she wrote to Suard: "I follow my sister every day before the altar, I kneel with her, and I say: 'O God, who hast given me my sister and my lover, I love thee and adore thee.'" Madame de Krüdener presented to Madame de Beaumont the Countess of Albany, who had come to Paris and who had brought with her Victor Alfieri. André Chénier became intimate with Madame de Beaumont, and read many of his verses to her before he did to anybody else. She knew many by heart, and in 1801 she was able to recite from memory to Chateaubriand long pieces, still unpublished, by the unfortunate poet.

Montmorin played a very honorable part in all the events which preceded the flight to Varennes. He had signed the passport given to the Queen, under the name of Baroness of Korf; and when the King and Queen were brought back to Paris, the populace surrounded the Foreign Office and threatened the life of Montmorin. Madame de Beaumont's health could not resist the emotions which she experienced from that time. A Committee of the Assembly examined all the papers of the Foreign Office, and it was proved that the passport seized on the Queen had been asked for by the Minister of Russia, and that Montmorin could not refuse to deliver it. Montmorin was, in fact, ignorant of the King's plan; but the press denounced him, nevertheless, as a traitor and an accomplice of foreign Powers.

Montmorin left the Foreign Office in 1791. He knew that the King and the Queen were in reality governed by their advisers from Brussels and Coblenz. He had blamed the emigration, he felt that he could not reconcile the Court with the Assembly nor the Assembly with the Court. He was nevertheless accused by the popular journals of being a member of a secret committee called the Austrian Committee, and of remaining one of the advisers of the King. On the famous 10th of August Montmorin left his hôtel with his wife and daughter Pauline, and took refuge in the house of a friend. He was hunted by the populace, found in his retreat, thrown into prison, and was one of the victims of the massacre made on the 2d of September, in the prisons.

Pauline de Beaumont left Paris with her mo-

ther and went to Rouen, and afterward to Burgundy. She spent the terrible winter of 1793 at Passy-sur-Yonne, at the house of M. de Sérilly. But the eye of the Convention was everywhere, and the Commissioners of the Revolutionary tribunal one day arrested all the inhabitants of the château at Passy: M. and Mme. de Sérilly, Mme. de Montmorin and her two daughters—Mme. de Beaumont and Mme. de la Luzerne. Mme. de Beaumont was so thin, so feeble, that after a march on the way to Paris she was abandoned on the road; her mother and sister were taken to Paris and implicated in the affair of Princess Elizabeth. Mme. de la Luzerne had already lost her mind from terror on the day of her arrest. She was condemned to be guillotined, but died in a hospital the day before the execution. Her brother had also been arrested; he was executed with his mother. Nineteen persons ascended on that day the steps of the guillotine; Calixte de Montmorin, who was only twenty-two years old, and his mother were the last. Pauline de Beaumont, who had been left almost dying on the road, had found an asylum in the house of a peasant, a good and honest man, who was not afraid of showing a feeling of humanity in those inhuman times. There she heard all the details of the horrible drama; a dark veil was thrown over the remainder of her life, and she liked ever afterward to repeat the verses of Job: "Wherefore is light given to him that is in misery, and life unto the bitter in soul?"

Joubert lived at Villeneuve-sur-Yonne. When he heard in what condition the daughter of M. de Montmorin was left, he visited her, he became her protector and her friend. We know by Joubert's own writings what was, at the time, his state of mind. His soul was essentially noble and delicate; there was an ideality in him which the cold contact of the world, the cruel realities of a sanguinary time, could not destroy. In 1794 Mme. de Beaumont left the humble house of the good peasant Dominique Paquereau (why should we not give his name?), and returned to Paris. She found the capital transformed, empty of almost all her friends, alive with a new life. Her father's hôtel had been sacked, and nothing remained of it but a cypress in a garden. Her only joy was in finding François de Pange and Mme. de Sérilly. It would be interesting to show the effect of the Revolution on a nature like Mme. de Beaumont's. Her soul was for a moment crushed, and she fell into the state of unbelief which goes now under the name of pessimism. Existence seemed to her the great evil, and she lost her confidence in the Author of all existence. It would require another pen than that of Bardoux to describe the languor, the anxieties of Mme. de Beaumont; to note the influence of Joubert and his idealism on a low-spirited, sad, and melancholy person.

Mme. de Beaumont in 1798, at Mme. de Staël's, saw much of Benjamin Constant. She had a great dislike of him; Joubert hated him even more. Mme. de Beaumont writes to him: "I don't know whether it will calm you if I say that Benjamin Constant is as hated as possible. He cannot succeed in liking himself." In 1799 she writes: "Your friend Benjamin does all he can in order not to be forgotten. Unfortunately, like venomous beasts, he draws attention only by wounding; it is his only life. Any mild sensation is nothing to him; and he needs sensations to tear him from his ennui." Speaking of Mme. de Staël, she says: "I am miserable when I think that the fate of a woman whom I love is bound up with a man who is truly hateful." At that time Benjamin Constant had written his first pamphlet, "On the strength of the actual government of France and of the necessity of rallying to it." He defended the Republic, though it had been dishonored by the Terror and was

weakened by the divisions of parties and by the arbitrary conduct of the men in power. Mme. de Beaumont did not mix much with politics; she hated the murderers of her family, she despised, as everybody did, the Directory, which was struck with a sort of senile imbecility. All was ready for a Dictator, and the Dictator appeared in the figure of Bonaparte.

Correspondence.

THE NATION AND ITS FRIENDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial in the last number of the *Nation* brings to my mind the thought that I may almost claim to be one of its original readers. I was a student at college when it began to be issued, and have now no very distinct recollection when it first attracted my attention; but I long ago learned to value most highly its utterances, and, except during some years spent abroad, I rarely lost an opportunity to look into its issues week by week. I own a bound set of its forty volumes, and doubt whether I have forty other volumes of equal size that I value equally high. In the department of political economy alone it contains a body of facts and opinions the like of which in genuine worth I can find nowhere else; and as a contemporary history of our nation during these eventful years in literature, in politics, in finance, in its social life generally, it is unapproached in trustworthiness and completeness by any periodical of which I have knowledge.

Perhaps I shall be pardoned if I give expression to a few reflections that have risen in my mind since I read the editorial above referred to. It seems almost incredible that the first issues of a newspaper, which doubtless number many thousands, should in twenty years, or even less, have become so exceedingly scarce as seems to be the case with the first numbers of the *Nation*, to judge from the high prices offered by dealers. But, like human beings born into this world whom no one takes note of except near friends, and whose future no one can predict until time shows whether they are fit to survive, newspapers, too, have their fates, and it is left for the future to decide whether they have sufficient vitality to long sustain them in the struggle for existence.

That the *Nation*, conducted as it has been solely in the interests of truth, without regard to party or resort to the means so generally practised by newspapers to increase their circulation, has had a reasonable measure of success, is a hopeful sign for our democracy. There have always been some thousands among us who have not bowed the knee to Baal, and who have not only been willing to give heed to the truth, but to pay for it. That your success, as success is usually reckoned, compared with organs political, ecclesiastical, diabolical, has not been greater, is the sad comment on so many millions of people who would rather be confirmed in already formed opinions than heed the admonition to scan again and again the grounds of their faith. "E pur si muove." Thirty years ago such a journal as the *Nation* could not have lived six months: it has now nearly reached its majority, with the promise of a long future of usefulness before it. The work it aims to do will be the easier for others who labor in similar fields because of what it has already done. Its friends can wish for it no better godspeed than to bid it continue in the course it has thus far pursued. S.

ATHENS, O., June 29, 1885.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am one of those who commented reading the *Nation* with the first number, and have been a constant reader since. For a greater part

of the twenty years I have been a subscriber, and have now an entire set of the paper in my possession. I know of nothing that has been written and printed during these years that has been of so much benefit to me as your paper.

In 1865 I came back home after three and a half years' service in the Union army. I was twenty-five, single, and took up the same clerkship I had left when I went away. For ten years previous to that I had had more or less of a taste for literature, although my education had necessarily been limited. I commenced taking the *Nation*, as I had commenced before another new periodical, to see what this new paper meant. I liked the prospectus, and I found the paper was what I needed, and I have continued.

I confess that now, looking back from this standpoint, I cannot see how I could possibly have done without it. It has been a friend to me, tried often and always true. I have looked to it for advice and light on all the important questions that have arisen. One thing has surprised me often, and yet perhaps it ought not, and that is that of late years, after some important event has happened, I have found the comments of your paper on it to be exactly my own view, but of course better expressed. I find that I have got in the habit of waiting to read your comments on events and questions of the day before making up my mind about them.

You cannot help a feeling of sadness as you think of those who have worked with you and now are gone; and while there must be a sense of satisfaction at the good work done in the twenty years past, yet to me it seems sad that we are hardly nearer the end of the strife now than we were at the beginning of these score of years. When I was a boy I read of wars and battles as things of the past. I thought the world, at least our part of it, was through with that kind of business; that for us the Millennium had about come. Now my boys, in their teens, study the history of the greatest strife of the century, in which I took a part, and the future for them seems glorious, and they are astonished and surprised when I tell them that they in their generation may be called upon to solve even more difficult questions than confronted their father. So, while you have nobly stood up for things that were true and honest and of good report, and much has been accomplished, yet error and wrong come up year after year, and generation after generation in new shapes, and the battle never comes to an end.

It would be idle to wish that those who have been the editors and writers for the *Nation* in the past could continue their work much longer in the future; but while I live, and long after, I hope the *Nation* will exist with the same aim it has had and with even greater success.

Yours truly,

EDWARD G. SHERLEY.

ALBANY, July 1, 1885.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one of your younger readers and eight-year subscribers, I desire to congratulate you upon the successful completion of your twentieth year. I have taken you ever since I knew you, with a short interval of a few months' lapsed subscription. I consider you the safest and best teacher and interpreter of the times for the people, young and old, throughout the Union. As a Southerner, too young for service in the late civil war, too old not to appreciate and value its results, too Southern to condemn the "Lost Cause" and its defenders, too patriotic to regret its issue, I thank you for the faithful discharge of those duties which, twenty years ago, you set before yourself. I can wish you no higher success than the natural growth of your own established power and influence. C. H. C.

COLUMBUS, MISS., June 30, 1885.

A CARD FROM MR. LOWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: Will you grant me, as an old contributor, a few lines of your valuable space in which to beg those who do not know me (it is unnecessary for those who do), not to believe that I have said what the newspapers are reporting me to have said? I have been accused of many things, but never before, so far as I know, of being an idiot. Faithfully yours,

J. R. LOWELL.

DEERFOOT FARM, SOUTHBOROUGH, MASS., July 7, 1885.

ONE VIEW OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: In an editorial in your last number you refer to the charge that the bulk of Americans really care nothing, or next to nothing, about questions of government popularly so called—that is, about changes in legislation or administration, about war or peace, about taxation or education: that their main motive is to keep certain persons out of, or put others in possession of, a number of small places. You then mournfully contrast this with the state of things in England, where, though only a few of the highest places are involved and the laws as to the expenditure of money are very severe, a full vote is always cast amid the fiercest excitement; to which you might have added that many intelligent Americans take even more interest in English politics than in our own—and you ask if it is really true that republican institutions have, in one century, killed popular interest in politics.

That the main facts alleged are true can hardly be questioned, but they admit of an explanation which obviates the necessity of such a despairing conclusion. When the Civil-Service Reform League was started, certain persons, who joined it from sympathy with its objects, expressed distrust of the result. They said: "Neither party has any policy or any means of carrying one out. At present the only means of stimulating united action is the hope of office. If you take away that, without substituting any other, you simply destroy the basis of cohesion. If one party renounces the use of the offices, it will surrender power to the other, and if both parties renounce it, then the resort will be to the use of money in elections to be made up out of the Government afterward in some way." Now it is a very singular coincidence, to say the least, that after twenty years' agitation of civil-service reform, the Republicans, who put the Act in force, should have been turned out at the very next election. As an original Mugwump I am bound to maintain that the election turned upon the personality of the candidates; but it would not be impossible to argue that the efforts of the Republican line, from Congressmen down, were dampened by the feeling that they had been cut off from the hope of reward, while the Democrats, who by no means regarded their hands as tied, were stimulated by the feeling that their time had come. The Administration has indeed met the hopes of the reformers, but we cannot be so sure that the bulk of its own party are equally happy, and it will be very curious to note the effects upon the election of 1888. Before that time comes, however, I cherish a hope that some other and legitimate subject of public interest will be provided.

What, then, is the reason of this sad state of things? If you wish to govern by universal or widely extended suffrage, you must be prepared with questions which will excite a common and powerful interest among masses of men. If the questions are too abstract, the people will be indifferent; if they involve too much detail, even if men are interested and agreed on the general

principle, they will be baffled and discordant as to particulars. Again, the questions must be such as to be fully answered by "Yes" or "No," as that is all which can be expected from the multitude. As a London paper lately said: "If you want to get a real political opinion out of an Englishman, you must ask him a very plain short question, and not a highly complex one." Public opinion can say whether it wants civil service or tariff reform or not; but if you ask it to arrange or enforce the details, you will encounter only discouragement and apathy. Once more, the questions asked must be more or less identified with individuals. The world always has been and always will be governed by men, and the enthusiasm of the masses is always most strongly excited by personality, while the most powerful of all political forces is the enthusiasm for principle *plus* the enthusiasm for men. The difference between English politics and ours is that one course is pursued there and the other here. In England the Ministry always settle the details of public measures, subject to the requirements of administration and the criticism of Parliament. The people are asked first if they wish to have a general principle carried out. If they say yes, and elect a Parliament in accordance, a Ministry take office who prepare a bill to effect it. If Parliament and the Ministry differ as to the bill, recourse is again had to the people to say which they prefer, after they have been informed and aroused, first by public discussion and second by the strong projection of personality, with the stirring consciousness that the decision rests with them, or with a majority who say yes or no. Under the extended suffrage, it is becoming more and more the case that everything turns upon one man. To-day it is Beaconsfield; to-morrow it is Gladstone. Yet never has there been in English history a time when there was less danger of usurpation of power by one man. The premier's success must depend upon the nature of his measures and the choice of his staff, but, above all, upon the public confidence in his personal character. This may be right or wrong, but it accounts abundantly for the public interest in politics.

How is it in this country? It may be said that the people choose members of Congress to frame measures for carrying out general principles. But the difference is world-wide. The British Ministry consists of some dozen men, each responsible for some branch of administration and collectively for the whole. Their plans have to be submitted to Parliament, where an active Opposition, headed by chosen leaders, is certain to try them as by fire, so that not only the measures but the men on both sides are placed before the public in the clearest and most interesting light. Members of Congress, on the other hand, have nothing to do with, and are in no way responsible for, administration, either individually or collectively. They are split up into committees totally independent of each other. Their deliberations and their conclusions are formed in secret, and subject to influences which the people regard, to speak mildly, with blind suspicion. Their measures are never debated in public, because, as all business stands on the same footing, there is no time, and, moreover, public discussion is the last thing for which they are adapted. Not even party enters into them, because, as Mr. Wilson, in his 'Congressional Government,' forcibly points out, the committees are made up of both parties. There is no individuality anywhere. Committees report by majority and minority, the houses vote in the same way. Everything is secret and everything irresponsible. The Cabinet and the President have no voice in legislation and therefore no effective power in administration. Except in the appointments to office, they never come before the public in any way.

Not only is the will of the people never carried out, but they have no means of forming any will. Neither measures nor men are ever submitted to them. For the former, they have to take the glittering generalities of "platforms"; for the latter, candidates imposed upon them by nominating conventions, which candidates can neither appeal to any record in the past nor any effective promises for the future. Still, as the Government is carried on by elections, and as public opinion must be crystallized and people must be brought to vote somehow, a whole system of caucus wire-pulling and machine politics has grown up, which must rest either upon the spoils of office or plunder of some kind, because the artisans of the fabric must be paid, and well paid, for work which demands unremitting thought and exertion and a high degree of skill. The condition of things is even worse in the States, but, curiously enough, the remedy for the pitiable spectacle of helpless legislatures is sought for in biennial sessions—that is, in diminishing still further the opportunities for the people of taking interest in politics.

The keynote and stepping-stone to reform is in Cabinet responsibility—not because it is English, but because it is common-sense, and the only thing which will help us out of the slough. The moment the Secretaries stand up to speak on the floor of Congress they will be actors on the grandest arena in the world, riveting the attention and interest of the whole country. Business must be dragged out of the committee-rooms into daylight, because the public voice will demand it. Public debate will begin because the mere suggestions of the Cabinet will compel some organization and proportion of business. Members will begin to appear in a different light to their constituents, when, instead of being voting machines, played upon by unknown and suspicious agencies, they have to give an account of their attitude toward policies and leaders. There will not long be reason to complain of public apathy.

In the absence of any other suitable question, here is one which seems to fill the requirements of simplicity and an answer by Yes or No: Shall or shall not the Cabinet have seats in Congress, and instructions be given to that body to carry the decision into effect? Unless I am greatly deceived, there will not be much difficulty, if it is launched by the proper authority, in arousing the public interest upon that. G. B.

BOSTON, July 6, 1885.

TOBACCO AND CHEWING-GUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: In the *Nation* of June 25 your comments upon the remarks of Henry Ward Beecher concerning tobacco led you to observe, that happily the disgusting habit of tobacco-chewing and spitting is passing away. So it is here in the West; but, unfortunately, a new affliction is upon us. The chewing of tobacco by the men was bad enough—it was a sorry sight; but yet every man of any pretensions to good breeding or standing in society would chew modestly, so to say, and in a half-concealed way, and he would also have due regard for the clothes and boots of others. Our women, on the contrary, who are now the chewers, chew boldly, with mouths considerably opened, while the mastication goes on at a lively rate. True, they do not spit, for what they chew is gum only; but the sight they present is abominable. Fine clothes and rough manners, much dress and little tact—this is generally true of the well-to-do classes here in the West. Our girls, especially when good-looking, seem to delight in opening their mouths as wide as can well be done—possibly to show their fine artificial teeth.

Perhaps they wish to attract attention only, and in that they are generally successful. Many of our society ladies go still a step further: they chew so that they can be distinctly heard a few paces off. I confess that several times in a street-car I have quietly exchanged my seat for one a little further away.

You Easterners would laugh at some of our wild Western ways. In the streets of St. Louis, for instance, it is a common occurrence that when a well-dressed young lady of good family enters a street-car in which all the seats are occupied, the following scene presents itself: The young lady, who is cheerily chewing, steps in and halts a moment, whereupon a well-dressed young man quickly rises from his seat and at once turns his back to the lady, without offering her the seat by mien or motion; he then hastily walks off a few steps even before he has had time to stand up straight. You Easterners would say he *sneaks* off, for that is the way it looks. The young lady then takes the vacated seat as of course, continues chewing, and begins to look around to see who is in the car.—Respectfully,

WERNER A. STILLE.

HIGHLAND, ILL., June 27, 1885.

Notes.

GEO. ROUTLEDGE & SONS announce that they will next autumn publish the following juvenile works "of a better than ordinary grade": 'Great Cities of the Modern World' and 'Great Cities of the Ancient World,' both illustrated; 'Heroes of American Discovery,' by "N. D'Anvers"; and also the 'Marigold Garden,' by Kate Greenaway.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'The Queen's Empire; or, Ind and Her Pearl,' by Joseph Moore, illustrated; 'Horse and Man,' by the Rev. J. G. Wood, likewise illustrated; and 'A Feather from the World's Wing: a Modern Romance in Rhyme,' by Algernon Sidney Logan.

'The Eastern Question in a Nutshell' might almost be the title of a most useful work just issued by the Clarendon Press, Oxford. The real title is, 'The European Concert in the Eastern Question: a Collection of Treaties and other Public Acts, edited, with introductions and notes, by Thomas Erskine Holland, D.C.L., etc.' The scheme embraces an exhibition of the various formal acts by which Europe has asserted its tutelage over Turkey. The arrangement is by territories, as, Greece (1826-1881); Samos and Crete (1830-1878); Egypt (1830-1885); the Lebanon (1842-1883); the Balkan Peninsula, etc. (1856-1885). The appendix is in four sections: Religious and Political Equality in Turkey; Russia and the Porte; Great Britain and the Porte; Austria and the Porte—the last three relating to the Treaty of San Stefano and the subsequent conventions for peace and indemnity between Turkey and her great enemy; the acquisition of Cyprus by Great Britain, and that of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria. Dr. Holland furnishes brief historical introductions to each chapter, and explanatory notes to the text of the treaties, indicating (among other things) to what extent they have become obsolete. The whole forms an invaluable book of reference on a subject hitherto to be studied with difficulty, owing to the dispersion of the sources.

The little anonymous book, 'Pompeii—Illustrated,' brought out by John Ireland, seems hardly more than a pretext for the illustrations by the Photo-Gravure Co. of this city. The letter-press consists mainly of excerpts from Bulwer. The ten views, of a pale-green tint, are interest-

ing enough and sufficient as memoranda; but, as specimens of a particular process of reproduction from nature, they probably fall considerably short of this company's ideal of good workman ship.

'Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada' puts in its annual appearance, with the customary marks of revision. We can accuse it of shortcoming only in respect to Alaska, whose accessibility, wonderful interest, or indeed existence, is unrecognized by this excellent work, although it takes the tourist over the Northern Pacific Railroad as far as Puget Sound and Victoria.

A specimen volume of Carlyle's works in thirteen volumes has been issued by John B. Alden. It contains 'Sartor Resartus,' 'Past and Present,' 'The Diamond Necklace,' and 'Mirabeau,' is fairly well printed, and is sold at a price which must leave very little margin for author's copy-right.

The *Magazine of American History* has caught the infection of "War Papers," beginning with the July issue. "War Studies," they are called, but that name is rather high-sounding for anything in the first instalment. Both Federals and Confederates contribute reminiscences, of no very weighty import.

The *Southern Biouac* (Louisville, Ky.: B. F. Avery & Sons) for July continues its review of Hood's Tennessee campaign, and has some minor papers on the war, and some anecdote.

W. R. Jenkins has begun to issue a series of Spanish plays (Teatro Español) parallel with the French which he has for some time been publishing. 'La Independencia,' a four-act comedy by Don Manuel Breton de los Herreros, is the first number.

L. Schick, Chicago, whose German series ("Collection Schick") of novelettes was designed to assist learners of the language, furnishes still more aid by reissuing the same stories in English in an "Overland Library" of corresponding form. Rudolf Lindau's 'Hans, the Dreamer,' and two other stories make No. 1.

The well-known series of "Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen" (Berlin: Carl Habel) has its imitator in the "Sociale Zeitfragen" lately undertaken by Bruns (Minden; New York: Westermann). Eight numbers are before us, dealing with the defects of the Christian-Socialism movement, insurance for the sick, money in the political economy of the present day, the right to labor (Bismarck's doctrine), machinery and the labor question (by Prof. F. Reuleaux), etc., etc. To foreign eyes the print of these duodecimo pamphlets is not very agreeable.

Westermann & Co. send us the general index of names and matters completing the 'Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften,' edited by Zöckler (Nördlingen: C. H. Beck).

From the same source we receive specimen pages of an 'Allgemeine Naturkunde'—natural history in its broadest sense—published by the Bibliographisches Institut of Leipzig. The History of the Earth will fill two volumes, and so will Plant-life and Man; while Ethnology will fill three. The numerous illustrations in each department are of the first degree of excellence, and notably so in the ethnological portion. There will be 130 full-page chromolithographs.

That fantastic drama, 'La Tentation de Saint-Antoine,' is the fifth in number and the third to appear of the complete works of Gustave Flaubert published by A. Quantin (*édition définitive*). A glossary has been added here, as in the case of 'Salammbô.' A volume of 'Mélanges' is promised, consisting of youthful literary fragments hitherto unprinted, and possessing great interest, says the publisher.

Almost uniform with the pretty little series of the 'Almanach des Spectacles,' is a little vol-

ume of the same publishers (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern), called 'Le Répertoire de la Comédie-Française—Mars, 1883, Décembre, 1884,' by M. Ch. Gueullette. It is devoted to a consideration of the plays which are "kept in stock" at the Théâtre-Français, ready to be acted at a moment's notice, and is a beauty of a book. The preface by M. Armand Silvestre is interesting and suggestive, and the etching of Mlle. Bartet, which serves as a frontispiece, is worthy of the fine and truly feminine face it reproduces.

The survivor of the Goncourt brothers, having completed the final revision and amplification of their studies of the artists and art of the eighteenth century, in three volumes, has now begun a similar setting in order of the studies of the 'Actrices du XVIIIe. Siècle,' a series of anecdotic and documentary biographies, to be completed in eight independent volumes, of which the first, 'Sophie Arnould,' is now ready, and the second, 'Mme. Saint-Huberty,' is in press. After these two singers will come two dancers, the 'Guimard' and the 'Camargo'; two tragic actresses, 'Mlle. Clairon' and 'Mlle. Adrienne Lecouvreur,' and two comic actresses, 'Mlle. Contat' and 'Mme. Favart.' There will be two editions of the series, one in the handy format *Charpentier*, and the other larger and more elaborate, with etchings and facsimiles.

Bibliography flourishes in Russia. The bookseller Mezhoff promises a list of books and pamphlets that appeared on occasion of Pushkin's jubilee; Mr. Huberti is preparing a third part of his 'Materials for Russian Bibliography'; and Mr. Yazikoff has issued the first of an annual 'Necrology of Russian Authors.' This volume gives accounts of the authors who died in 1881, with a list of their publications, whether in book form or in periodicals.

Polybiblion praises deservedly the indexes of Mr. Griswold, but, being puzzled by his pseudonym, attributes them, or at least their publication, to "La Société des Q. P. Index."

—It was once a charge against poetry that it dealt overmuch with the mere image and description of nature; but now the stricture applies to a considerable portion of our prose, and perhaps more justly. There is a difference, however, inasmuch as the poet's picturing was more personal, and apprehended vaguely, in sympathetic and dissolving emotion, rather than concretely as the plain substantial memory of familiar fact; our novelists transcribe the landscape of their early years or tourist vacations, and hence, owing to the English trait of storg attachment to places, they seem sometimes by their scene-painting to invigorate the local patriotism of readers, as Scott does by his historical characters or Burns by the incidents of peasant life. This quality in George Eliot's work is the occasion of the opening article in the July *Century* on "George Eliot's County." The title is by many thousand acres too large for the matter, for only a small portion of Warwickshire is traversed; and both illustrations and text confirm the report that it is a very tame country. Lovers of quiet, narrow horizons, of swelling green fields, and gray cottages, and boundaries of low woods, may refresh themselves with the writer's gently enthusiastic description, but there is a wonderful lack of vividness, of definition and picturesque touch in it, and especially of George Eliot. But then her personality has very little to do with the subject, after all. A pathetic interest attaches to the few reserved and well-chosen words with which the father of Frank Hutton, the young and brilliant explorer whose accidental death in Borneo has been much lamented, introduces some extracts from the diary of his son regarding the country which he pene-

trated. These two articles, and we ought perhaps to add the instalment of Mr. Eggleston's work on the social life of the colonies (though, by reason of its disconnectedness, it reads too much like a classified dictionary of customs), make the secondary attractions of the number, in which, as in its predecessors for some months, the main place is held by the topics of fiction and war.

—The war papers in the July number of the *Century* continue the story of the Seven days' fight about Richmond; Gen. D. H. Hill contributing a second paper, and the others being written by Generals Franklin and Longstreet. The paper by Longstreet is among the most vigorous and felicitous in style of all which have appeared; a pleasant surprise, in view of the reports recently in circulation as to his health. The Confederate officers give weighty opinions on several points of great importance. First, that the bloody repulse of the Confederates at Beaver Dam Creek was so demoralizing that the way was open for McClellan to have strengthened that position and held firmly to his lines north of the Chickahominy. Second, that in these movements Stonewall Jackson was badly behind time, failing to execute his flanking movements with the promised speed and vigor at Beaver Dam, at Gaines's Mills, and at Frayser's Farm. Third, that Petersburg was at McClellan's mercy when he reached the James River. As to the second point noted above, Franklin's paper is strongly corroborative of the views of the Confederate officers. They agree that Lee's repulse at Malvern Hills was terribly bloody and utterly discouraging, and the necessary implication is, that the retreat of the national forces to Harrison's Landing was needless. Their statements, though cautiously made, tend strongly to diminish the idolatry with which the Southern people have regarded the exploits of Jackson, and to imply that his brilliant successes were in no small part due to the weakness of the opponents against whom he was pitted in his independent campaigns. Franklin distinctly charges Heintzelman with compromising the safety of the national army by the premature withdrawal of his corps from Savage Station. All agree that if the retreat was to be made, it was well managed by McClellan, and that the Confederate ignorance of the topography of the region over which they were fighting was something almost incredible. The portraits of Stuart, Franklin, McCord, Smith, and Whiting are excellent, and the views from photographs are very valuable; but the battle sketches are worthless if not misleading.

—Among the recent minor contributions to the history of the war, we have not met a pleasanter or more praiseworthy one than the 'Story of a Boy Company (C. S. A.), by an ex-boy' (Richmond: Whittet & Sheperson). This little book gives a lively sketch of the organization and camp experience of Parker's artillery company of S. D. Lee's (later E. P. Alexander's) battalion of the Army of Northern Virginia. Parker's company was recruited in Richmond at the beginning of the war, and was composed in very considerable part of boys under military age. The writer (understood to be Mr. R. W. Figg, of Richmond) gives, in simple and graphic style, the incidents of camp life. His allusions to the contemporaneous military events are accurate, but his chief merit lies in the clear and not overdrawn pictures of soldier-life in the Confederate army. His company, like many others in that army, was largely made up of youths from the best ranks of society, and consequently the type of soldiering he describes is of the better sort. But he does not conceal the weaknesses of himself or his comrades, and he is as frank to acknowledge the courage and generosity of a foe-man as of a friend. The mellow light which he

throws upon the acts and actors of the great struggle is one of the charming characteristics of the book. No bitterness remains. General Hancock is as sincerely applauded in the streets of New York as General Pickett is mourned in his grave in Hollywood. The historical value of this excellent monograph would have been increased by fuller statistics and a roster.

—We deeply regret to record the death of Henry H. Gorringe, late Lieut.-Commander, U.S.N., at about the age of forty-five years. His robust physique and sanguine temperament would have insured him, but for the accident which befell him a few months since, a long life. His rise in the navy, beginning with service in the Mississippi flotilla during the civil war, was extremely creditable to him, and his semi-naval exploit in bringing over the Alexandrian obelisk to New York is within the memory of all. This task tested to the utmost the qualities of Captain Gorringe, and the shaft in Central Park is literally his own monument erected by himself. It would have been well had his success in this achievement not diverted him from the navy, but he chafed under restraints which our debased politics rendered especially intolerable. His impulsiveness led him toward many enterprises which his fertile mind conceived without the control of a wise judgment, and in none of these were his expectations fulfilled. He was a man of singularly winning presence, a warm and hearty manner, a frank, blue eye, which bespoke his Norse-English lineage. It was during his connection with the Hydrographic Office at Washington, in 1875, that Captain Gorringe first became a contributor to the *Nation*. Without being a trained writer, his style was pleasant and his matter always thoughtful. Notable in every way were letters which he sent to this paper from the Mediterranean, during his cruise there in the *Gettysburg* in the years 1877-78.

—The 'Standard Natural History,' edited by J. S. Kingsley (Boston: S. E. Cassino and Co.), has reached its forty-second part. The portion thus far issued comprises the general introduction by Dr. A. S. Packard, and the whole of the Invertebrata, which occupy volumes i-xi, as they will eventually be arranged. Volume v, on the Mammalia, is also completed, and vol vi, Anthropology, nearly half done. There are also four parts of volume iii, on the Lower Vertebrates, which do not carry it much beyond the introduction. This work has, for its foundation, electrotypes of Brehm's beautiful illustrations. To these the publishers have added a number of generally very distinguishable American woodcuts and reproductions of varied merit; and have secured the services of a number of American specialists to provide a text. The text is far from uniform in its relation to the reader; some of it being too abstruse for any but a scientific reader, and some too popular for accuracy. A fair proportion of it, however, will be convenient for the well-read cultivated public, and for the specialist who may like to look up some points in matters out of his own line. The high-water mark seems reached in contributions from Hyatt, Fewkes, Gill, and some others; and the ebb in some of the material on mammals by a little-known contributor. The anthropology of North America seems in large part a translation from second-rate German sources; it contains many errors. The illustrations to this part are also less good originally, and less well printed than in the rest of the work so far received. It is not creditable, with so many good anthropologists in this country and excellent illustrations available, that the publishers should offer nothing fresher and better in this particular direction.

—On a recent visit in Paris to the Bibliothèque Nationale, writes a correspondent, having some interest in portraits of Columbus, we asked what could be seen there in that line. A volume was brought to our table, in which we found no less than fifty-two such portraits pasted. These had been gathered from divers languages and literatures, and were a single specimen and an insignificant fraction of a work expanding into many scores of volumes—a variorum collection of portraits of as many noted men as possible. No such alphabetical or encyclopedic gallery seems to have been attempted in the British Museum. When we there inquired for Columbus portraits, we ascertained that only thirteen were to be seen, and those not bound, but in loose sheets. In some of our States, however, a beginning has been made on the Parisian plan. Mr. W. H. Wyman, of Cincinnati, has turned his leisure hours to good account by compiling a volume of Shakspeare portraits. He has thus brought together one hundred and forty-eight specimens, and presented them to the Wisconsin Historical Society, which has already about eight hundred volumes of Shaksperiana. Most of the counterfeit presentments which Mr. Wyman has brought together are common, modern, and not costly. Yet the impression, even in turning over these, is cumulative. They attest patience and painstaking. They cost the sacrifice of not a few noble volumes in the editions of Tallis, Knight, Halliwell, and Scott. But a good many of the pictures have a special interest as ancient, rare, or of artistic excellence. No. 1 in the Wyman volume is the same with No. 124 in the hand-list of the world-famous collection at Hollingbury Copse, namely, "the true effigies engraved by Ward from a painting by Phillips after a cast by Bullock from the bust at Stratford-on-Avon, 1816." Nor is this the only instance in which Halliwell-Phillips would discover with wide-eyed wonder, west of our lakes, counterparts of his choice treasures. One of the largest of the Wyman engravings (8x11 inches), as well as the rarest and most exquisite as a work of art, is the so-called Felton picture, and that, too, published in 1796. This date is only four years after the original—one of the two most likely to be authentic—was discovered. This is the likeness which, from the figures 1597 and the initials R. B. inscribed upon it, is believed to have been executed by Shakspeare's fellow-actor, Richard Burbage. The Chandos and the Droeshout likenesses each appear on Mr. Wyman's pages in more than a score of replicas, often with great variations. The former is best reproduced by Cochran, and the latter by Picart. The Kesselstadt death-bed, with four views of the death-mask; the picture by Cornelius Jansen; Ward's statue in Central Park; the O'Donovan and Devonshire busts; the Queen's, made of Herne's oak; the poet before Elizabeth, as shown in Baillie's stained-glass window; the statue in Westminster Abbey; the infant genius, as painted by Romney under the inspiration of Gray; the Beaufoy and Boydell medals; the Stratford chancel; and the jubilee procession of 1769, are but a tithe of the aspects in which, thanks to Mr. Wyman's labors, we can behold the most myriad-minded of men.

—It is perhaps not too late to remark, concerning the University race at New London, that the style of oarsmanship which the Harvard eight displayed was very far from anything like the kind of rowing which college men have been accustomed to call "professional." To be sure, professional crew-rowing as a distinctive branch of the art does not exist. There are professional scullers by the hundreds, a very few of whom occasionally make up a four to pull together for two or three weeks in preparation for some local regatta. But neither here nor in England is crew-rowing among such men what it was in the

days of the Kellys and the Renforths, the Wards and the Biglins. And as for a professional eight, either in England or America, who ever heard of such a thing? The scullers for money know little or nothing about this sort of rowing, as the Yale men found to their cost two or three years ago, when, under the influence of a clever mechanic, whose practical appliances had proved valuable in rigging boats, they were led to adopt his notion of the way to row an eight-oared shell. The modification in this year's Harvard stroke (and it is no radical change) was suggested by Mr. Watson, the veteran Harvard coach and a member of Loring's famous '68 crew, discussed, tried, and agreed to by Captain Storow. Doubtless Faulkner, whose employment has led to so much discussion, was ordered more than once to notice this point or that, and to "pick up the men," as he happened to be running the launch in the absence of Mr. Curtis, the regular coach; but as for influence or control over the crew, he had none whatever. These facts we give upon the authority of Mr. Mumford, who will captain next year's eight, and of a member of the Harvard Faculty who went to New London to investigate the matter as soon as the result of the race with Columbia had opened the eyes of the Yale men to the fact that the Cambridge lads had brought to the Thames a style of rowing hard to beat. Their stroke rowed consisted simply of a firm and even grip of the water, followed by an immediate and vigorous thrust of the legs and lift with the back, ending in a clean pull through with the arms. On the recover they showed an easy swing of the body, the hands clearing the knees without effort, and the oars skimming the crests of the choppy waves without a break.

—M. Naville, in a letter to Reginald Stuart Poole, dated Malagny, near Geneva, June 4, 1885, communicates what he considers the chief result of his winter "campaign" in the Delta of Egypt, in the service of the Egypt Exploration Fund. This achievement is a new identification of the site of Goshen, which he finds at a village called Saft el-Henneh, near the Sweet Water Canal, about six miles east of Zagazig, and a few miles west of Tell el-Kebir. His conjecture—he calls it "the solution of a geographical question"—he founds on part of an inscription found on stone fragments, indicating that the name of the place was Kes, and the locality sacred to Sopt, the chief god of the nome of Arabia. This Kes of the Arabian nome would thus be the Septuagint's "Gesem of Arabia," which stands for the Hebrew Goshen, and identical with the Kesem of the East of the hieroglyphical lists descriptive of the nomes of Egypt. "The same name preceded by the article is the origin of the Greek . . . Phacusa; which Ptolemy calls the capital of the Arabian nome, and as Phacusa has a great likeness to the Arabic Fakos, this last spot, twelve miles north of Tel-el-Kebir, has generally been acknowledged to be the Goshen of the Bible." This view has been defended, among others, by Ebers in his work, 'Durch Gosen zum Sinai.' Now M. Naville upholds the identity of Phacusa with Gesem or Kesem—that is, with Goshen—but rejects the identity of Phacusa with Fakos, promising to defend this apparently very strange critical proceeding in a "Memoir . . . on the monuments of Saft-el-Henneh."

—The new volume, just published, of Ersch & Gruber's 'Allgemeine Encyclopädie' is the thirty-seventh of the second section, and ranges from Kleinasien (Asia Minor) to Kochen (Cooking). The longest article is one of seventy pages on Convents (Klöster), giving their history from the earliest times, an account of their present strength and condition in the various countries of the world, and a description of the buildings, etc., in which they have their local habitation.

Sheridan Knowles has three pages, which is a fair proportion, considering that Klopstock has but seven. John Knox receives eight pages, and King Knut (whom in our youth we only knew as Canute), five. There is a brief account of the Know-nothings, by Friedrich Kapp, who supplied a number of articles on American history and biography in former volumes, notably one on Baron Kalb. Health Resorts (Klimatische Curorte) are exhaustively treated in an article of sixteen pages. Other noteworthy articles are, Kleinrussen, Kleist, Kleopatra, Kleon, Klytämnestra, Klerus, etc. There is a general tendency in this volume and the four or five immediately preceding it to abridge the articles, but that it has not been carried to excess is evident from the fact that six volumes have already been devoted to the letter K, and probably at least three more will be required before L can be begun. Of the entire work there have appeared 161 quarto volumes of between four and five hundred pages, printed in double columns. The first volume was issued in 1818, and its successors have been coming out ever since. Some of the subscribers seem to have been discouraged because the letter A required six volumes, but the publisher consoled them with the reflection that in all dictionaries this letter occupied more space than any other, and he estimated that the book would be completed in fifty volumes. It turned out, however, that B required seven volumes and a half, C and D each eight volumes, E ten and a half, and F eleven. In 1827 the second section was begun, to extend from H to N, and in 1830 the third section, from O to Z. From the outset the work had to contend with disasters. Several of the eminent men who were selected to edit the various sections died in rapid succession, but this was only in its infancy, so to speak; and it was fortunate in passing, in 1832, into the hands of the publishing house of Brockhaus, in Leipzig, with whose imprint it still continues to appear. In 1850 103 volumes had appeared, of which 51 were in the first section, comprising A to F complete, 27 in the second section, beginning with H and reaching to Juden and Jüdische Literatur, (which two articles fill one entire volume), and 25 in the third section, beginning with O and coming down to Phyxios. The third section was temporarily abandoned, and will not be continued until after the second has been completed. The second was dropped in 1855, on the completion of the letters I and J, and was not resumed until 1882, when section one had been completed in 99 volumes, of which 48 were devoted to the letter G.

—It is evident that when the last-named letter had been reached, all attempts to restrict the work within any bounds had been given up. The articles grew into learned treatises by recognized authorities, and some of them were, at the time of their appearance, the main, if not the sole source of information on their respective topics, being, not compilations, but the results of the original researches of specialists. Whether the subject be in Arabian literature, or in Norse mythology, or in ecclesiastical history, or in mediæval biography, there is always the same wealth of learning and the same fulness of treatment; and if an ordinary so-called man of education wants to be made aware of his own ignorance he can do no better than to turn over its pages. As an instance of the scale of the work, it may be mentioned that Greece has eight volumes to itself, Mullach writing on the language and dialects (174 pages), Weissenborn on Rhythm and Metre (30 pages). On India there is an article of 356 pages by Theodore Benfey, and on the Indo-Germanic languages 112 pages by August Friedrich Pott. The articles in the earlier volumes on Oriental Theology are by Hammer-

Purgstall. Scandinavian antiquities are treated by Karl Maurer. The articles on Great Britain, treating only of the period from 1832 to 1873, occupy 690 pages. Goethe has 144 pages. On Guiana there are 67 pages, and on Guzerat 33. There are two articles on each of the four Georges, one by an English, and the other by a German writer, about 160 pages in all. It is impossible to make anything but a random guess at the prospects of this work for completion. No matter how much compression may be brought to bear, it can hardly take less than 80 to 100 volumes, and 35 to 40 years to finish it, so that the last volume will be more than a century later than the first. Another half century will be needed to publish indispensable supplements. Men may come and men may go, but this book goes on forever.

ZEISBERGER.

Diary of David Zeisberger, a Moravian Missionary among the Indians of Ohio. Translated from the Original German Manuscript and Edited by Eugene F. Bliss. 2 Vols. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co., for the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio. 1885. Pp. 464 and 535.

AMONG the occurrences which invest the Western border wars, during and subsequent to the Revolution, with unusual and often startling interest, not the least important are the experiences that befell the Moravian Mission among the Indians. These experiences, as full of dramatic incidents as any of Cooper's Indian romances, have been set forth by Loskiel in his 'History of the Mission of the United Brethren among the Indians'; by Heckewelder in his 'Narrative' of the same enterprise; and more recently by Bishop de Schweinitz in his 'Life and Times of David Zeisberger.' Now there lies open before us one of the principal sources from which these writers have drawn. It is the Diary of David Zeisberger, the head of the Mission, who deserves the title which he has received of "the Western Pioneer and Apostle of the Indians." For sixty-two years he labored among them, preaching the Gospel, reclaiming them from their savage state, and establishing in their country Christian towns which filled with astonishment all who visited them, whether they were white men or aborigines.

This Diary may be called the artless narrative of a hero unconscious of his heroism. The Moravian missionaries wrote voluminous official journals, which were sent to the Mission Board at Bethlehem, in Pennsylvania. The Diary before us, however, seems to bear more of a private character. For, in the copy preserved in the Bethlehem Archives, are wanting many little clauses found in the original. Such clauses were, no doubt, deemed unimportant by the transcriber; but in point of fact they often contain remarks which beautifully characterize the author. Hence we obtain a glimpse of the inner life of one of the most remarkable men of the last century.

That life was distinguished by transparent humility and self-abnegation. He brings into the Christian Church some of the worst and most bloodthirsty savages of his time; he braves dangers in many forms; he bears, with unruffled serenity, the indignities heaped upon him by the British Indians; he declines to appeal to his rights as an adopted Mosey because he is told that such an appeal must not include his associates; he stands, with calm dignity, stripped by the savages to his shirt, before a British captain, the real leader of the expedition against the Mission, who had more than once enjoyed his hospitality; he hears, while lying a prisoner in a hut, the fate which seems to await him announced by the terrible "scalp-yells" of the warriors, and not a ripple passes

over his peace of heart; he goes with his fellow-missionaries, after their liberation, unguarded and alone for weary miles through the wilderness to be tried at Detroit as an American spy, without a thought of fleeing to Pittsburgh for protection; and yet never writes a word which would indicate that his labors are extraordinary, that he is manifesting a courage rarely equalled, that he is exhibiting a moral greatness of which he might well be proud. He seems to have but one aspiration, and that is the temporal and spiritual prosperity of his converts; while everything that he undertakes is absolutely consecrated to the spread of Christ's kingdom among the Indians. So completely absorbed is he in his labors of love that the thought of self finds no opportunity to intrude; and whatever glory he earns, he gives unreservedly to his Saviour. It is true that the news of the massacre, by American militia, of nearly one hundred of his converts, unmans him for a time and forces a great cry of sorrow from his heart; but he soon regains his wonted composure, and, while he cannot forget the fearful tragedy, records in his Diary the consolation which his simple-minded faith gives him:

"This news sank deep in our hearts, so that these our brethren, who, as martyrs, had all at once gone to the Saviour, were always, day and night, before our eyes and in our thoughts, and we could not forget them; but this in some measure comforted us, that they had passed to the Saviour's arms and bosom in such resigned disposition of heart, where they will forever rest, protected from the sins and all the wants of the world."

Zeisberger's Diary begins in the month of August, 1781, and opens with an account of the destruction of the Mission in the Tuscarawas Valley, of Ohio, by British Indians under the command of Captain Elliot, of the British army, and the Wyandot Half King. Then it relates the deportation of the entire body of converts, with their teachers, to Upper Sandusky; the journey of the latter to Detroit, their trial and acquittal; their return to their flock; the summons which they received to present themselves, for the second time, at Detroit; the intelligence, which reached them on the way, of the massacre of the Christian Indians at Gnadenhütten in March, 1782; the consequent dispersion of the converts; the resuscitation of the Mission, at New Gnadenhütten, on the Huron, now Clinton River, in Michigan; the wanderings from place to place of Zeisberger and such of the Christian Indians as had again gathered round him, looking in vain, amidst the troubles which convulsed the Indian Territory, for a retreat where they could dwell in peace; and at last, when war grew imminent, their flight into Canada, in 1792, in which country they settled on a reservation given them by the British Government, and still held by their descendants.

These records fill the first and nearly one-half of the second volume of the Diary; its remaining part contains a description of the labors of its author and his associates at their new seat of Fairfield, where the Mission flourished almost as of old. The last entry, Sunday, May 27, 1798, relates to the celebration of the festival of Whitsuntide, three months prior to Zeisberger's departure with a number of his converts to their old seats in the Tuscarawas Valley, twelve thousand acres of whose rich land Congress had meanwhile granted them as a permanent home. The Diary, therefore, comprises seventeen years memorable in American history.

That the chief object which, as Mr. Bliss says, he has in view in publishing the manuscript—namely, the furtherance of the study of that history—will be reached, we doubt not. That this book gives an opportunity, as he further remarks, to study "the action of white men upon Indians, Christians upon heathen, the civilized

upon savages," is evident. That it sets forth, in the simple language of an aged and long-trying missionary, the triumphs of the Christian religion amid pagans debased by their own vices and corrupted by their contact with the white race, will be considered its greatest merit by such as are interested in the spread of the Gospel. We consequently welcome the publication of Zeisberger's Diary, and congratulate Mr. Bliss on having accomplished a work of great labor and no little difficulty. The manuscript fills 869 pages, some of which must have been hard to decipher. It has been his purpose, as he tells us, to render the German as nearly like the original as the differing idioms of the German and English would permit. There results a style which is quaint, but which on that very account brings the reader *en rapport* with the simple-hearted writer. The introduction by Mr. Bliss is important; the typographical appearance of the volumes, worthy of the well-known publishing-house which has sent them forth.

Zeisberger's Diary, after his death in 1808, was placed in the archives of the Moravian church at Gnadenhütten, Ohio. There it was found by the Hon. Jacob Blickensderfer, of Canal Dover, who, with the consent of that church, presented it to the Hon. Ebenezer Lane, of Sandusky, Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio. About 1854 Judge Lane donated it to the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio, in whose possession it remains.

LAST MONTHS OF CAVOUR.

Lettere edite ed inedite di Camillo Cavour: raccolte ed illustrate da Luigi Chiala. Vol. IV. [1860-1861.] Gli ultimi mesi. Turin: Roux e Favale. 1885.

WHEN the King of Naples was driven from his capital and took refuge at Gaëta, the romantic era of the struggle for Italian independence ended. Posterity, ever ready to remember only the few striking episodes in history, has already singled out for especial remembrance the Garibaldian campaign, and forgets that achievements more difficult, though less brilliant, were needed to turn Garibaldi's knightly exploits to practical account. Historians either keep silent about or understate the danger which the Italian cause ran through Garibaldi himself, perhaps because they, like most men, say nothing but good of the dead, and think it wrong to see aught but good in heroes. The truth is, however, that from October, 1860, until June, 1861, the consummation of Italian unity was always in peril, and that at no other period of his career did Cavour overcome more obstacles, or prove more conclusively that he had been building a nation upon a reality and not upon an illusion.

The idea underlying his work was this: A free constitutional monarchy must eventually triumph over any autocracy, because every citizen is partner in the former government, and therefore personally interested in its welfare. Cavour saw that no republic in Italy could then be stable, although his prophetic eye beheld the probable ultimate triumph of democracy. He wrote in 1833: "The republicans, in a distant future, may become dangerous, for they have evidently with them the tendency of the century and the movement of material and intellectual levelling which is working among all classes of society. We cannot deceive ourselves: society is marching with long strides toward democracy; it is perhaps impossible to foresee the forms which it will assume, but as to the upshot, to my eyes at least, that is not doubtful." He insisted that Victor Emmanuel should assume the title of King of Italy instead of King of the Italians—to emphasize the national union; and in all his acts he adhered strictly to parliamentary forms, even when he

was virtually dictator, in order to impress upon his countrymen the sacredness of the Constitution. "It is the support I get from the representatives of the people," he used to say, "which makes it possible for me to do anything. Without that support I were powerless."

During the last months of Cavour's life he had several portentous difficulties to vanquish. Among them were the threatened revolution of the Garibaldians and the Mazzinians; the menacing attitude of Austria, who again massed troops on the Venetian frontier; the double policy of Napoleon III., who was personally friendly to the Italian cause, but who publicly shielded the Pope and the King of Naples; the reconstruction of the central and southern provinces; the Roman question, pure and simple. These complications, of course, were often merged in each other, so that perhaps the dangers may be resolved into two—Red Republicanism on one extreme; Reaction, papal and Bourbon, on the other. Each had its peculiar thorns. Thus, in dealing firmly with Garibaldi, Cavour incurred the enmity of many sincere Italians, whose admiration for that knight-errant's patriotic exploits quite blinded them to the utter impracticability of his scheme of government. When, as Dictator of Naples and hero of Sicily, he greeted Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, he made demands which the King could not possibly accede to. "There is incompatibility between me and your Minister at Turin," said he; "choose Cavour or Garibaldi." The King did not hesitate in his choice, and happily Garibaldi showed his magnanimity by laying down his sword.

When the King arrived at Naples and found the province on the verge of anarchy, Garibaldi retired to Caprera, refusing splendid honors for himself, but demanding that his fellow-soldiers, upon whom he had lavished the highest military titles, should be put in the foremost positions under the King. Cavour's path was very perilous. If he did not recognize the Garibaldians whose valor had freed a large part of Italy and had crowned them with boundless popularity, he would be accused of ingratitude, and in the storm of indignation which would have burst upon him not only would the Revolutionists have tried to establish themselves, but the King might have so lost his personal popularity that Italians would no longer have rallied round him as the head of their cause. If, on the other hand, he bowed to Garibaldi, the Constitutional Government would no longer command respect; and, moreover, the men in the royal army and navy—some of whom were veterans of 1848, while others had earned their honors in the Crimea or at Solferino—might justly complain at the promotion of red-shirted Garibaldians, who were adventurers, although patriotic adventurers, and who had served only one summer.

Cavour pursued a policy which proved successful. A few of the Garibaldian chiefs were commissioned in the regular army, and a special corps of volunteers was created into which the others were received. But this did not satisfy Garibaldi, who, nursing his anger against Cavour, on April 18, 1861, in the session of the first Italian Parliament, attacked the Prime Minister, whom he deemed a traitor because he had ceded Nice and Savoy to France, and an ingrate because he had not adequately rewarded the Garibaldian legion. The excitement in the Chamber was intense. The sitting was suspended, and the vehement denunciations of Garibaldi from the centre and right were answered by wild approving shouts from the left and from the galleries, which were crowded with Garibaldians. Stung by this insult, Cavour's rage for a short time mastered his self-control. A few days later,

at Victor Emmanuel's request, Cavour consented to meet Garibaldi:

"My interview," he wrote, "was courteous, without being affectionate. Each maintained his reserve. However, I made him understand the line of policy the Government intended to follow toward Austria and France, by declaring that on these points no transaction was possible. He replied that he accepted this programme, and that he was ready to engage not to embarrass the march of the Government. He limited himself to demanding that something should be done for the Army of the South. I made him no promise; still, I pledged myself to endeavor to find means to assure more completely the future (sort) of his officers. We separated, if not friends, at least without any irritation."

Cavour's victory over Garibaldi has not been fitly appreciated, yet it was of supreme importance. It showed that the Italian Government was sincerely constitutional; that it denied the right of even the most fervent patriot to substitute his personal wishes for parliamentary laws; that Cavour believed so profoundly in Liberal methods that he did not shrink from facing the anger of a hero who was backed by the blind devotion of the people. Moreover, after Cavour's death, it prevented the foolhardy Garibaldian attempts which ended at Aspromonte and Mentana from injuring Victor Emmanuel's rule, and it postponed indefinitely the setting up of a chimerical republic.

The second great enemy that Cavour had to fight during his last days was the demon of Reaction. Austria, knowing that the existence of a liberal monarchy of twenty-two million souls would render her tenure of Venetia insecure, not only tried to intimidate the new kingdom by increasing the Austrian armies on the frontier; but also, by encouraging the intrigues of the ruler expelled from the States of Central and Southern Italy, she hoped to foment sectional disorders and to nip in the bud the growth of a national Italian spirit. The home of the Reactionaries was Rome, and the fact that the temporal ruler of the Roman State was also the head of a powerful church made doubly difficult the union of the Pope's subjects to the kingdom of Italy. Of the intrigues and entanglements of the so-called "Roman question," only this can be said here—that Cavour had brought his intellect to solve it, and that there is every probability that, had he lived a little longer, it would have been solved more quickly and amicably than really happened. His views were summed up in two sentences: Rome must be the capital of Italy; there must be a free Church in a free State. With the latter words—*libera Chiesa in libero Stato*—on his lips, Cavour died on June 6, 1851, after an illness of but six days. Overwork was the cause; but his death might perhaps have been averted by proper medical treatment, for the Turinese doctors still clung to the mediæval expedient of blood-letting for every malady. When the end was near, his old friend, Father Giacomo, was summoned and he received the last sacrament. "I wish the good people of Turin to know," he said, "that I die like a good Christian. I am tranquil; I have never done harm to any one."

Of Signor Chiala's work little need be said. It is not complete because many letters of Cavour—although their existence is known—are not embraced in these four volumes, and not all the letters in this collection are as complete as they should be. It is an obvious mistake to leave out sentences or paragraphs which have already appeared in other books, because the great value of a work of this kind is largely due to its accuracy. But there are here more than 1,100 letters to furnish the foundation for an adequate biography of the great Italian statesman.

Fresh Fields. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. BURROUGHS presents in literature the cu-

rious spectacle of a man actively engaged in the annihilation of his own literary theories. When he discourses of books in the abstract he finds nothing respectable but a certain untamed vigor, and nothing so unworthy as a man who tries to write good English. He is like those frontiersmen who sneer at every one wearing "a boiled shirt"; or like that delightful Irishman in the old novel of 'Cherubina, or the Heroine,' who once had a hated rival with a pair of clean white hands—"which I verily believe," quoth Pat, "he washed every day of his life." Give Mr. Burroughs Carlyle in his worst-tempered moods, or Walt Whitman *in puris naturalibus*, and he can recognize a man. It is the constant burden of his complaint that people are coming to write too well, and that we may yet attain to as light and fine a touch as if we were no better than Frenchmen. In some ways he formerly lived up to this; left his sentences at loose ends, and ventured sometimes—in a description of Parisian social conveniences, for instance—upon passages nearly as unpresentable as the franker utterances of his favorite poet. Thus far his theory; but in practice, how changed! He is writing better and better, according to the ordinary, debasing standards; he avoids, like Bunthorne himself, all that could "bring a blush to the cheek of innocence": and there is serious danger of his being tempted at last into the very broadcloth and kid gloves of literature.

The simple truth is, that his theory was foredoomed to failure from the beginning. He was like the mountain guide who looks with contempt on the well-dressed frame of the artist or the *sevant* who employs him; and finds to his dismay that the man of the studio or the laboratory takes him to heights that he had deemed inaccessible. He was like the philosophers who maintained so long that the civilized man was smaller, weaker, and shorter-lived than the savage, until inexorable statistics showed the balance to be the other way. Mr. Burroughs has held—and probably still holds in the abstract—to the noble-savage theory. The trouble is that it always involved him in contradictions. It defeated itself; and though he may still hold it in the abstract, he has abandoned it in practice. No man can make literature his profession without learning at last to feel some respect for the sense of form and beauty; and there is great danger that Mr. Burroughs, in spite of himself, may yet join the despicable army of good writers.

No doubt there remain, here and there, even in this book, phrases which belong to an earlier and cruder style, such as, "They were tame indeed in comparison with such rock scenery as that say at Lake Mohunk" (p. 41); or, "And it may be said here that his wife [Carlyle's] had the same form of complaint, and had it bad" (p. 241)—the italics being our own. And as to the larger matters of literary execution, we find in his long essay on Carlyle, entitled "In Cheyne Row," a great deal of what would ordinarily be called diffuseness and repetition. That those seventy pages could have been profitably condensed into twenty, is our firm conviction; and all the more as he has elsewhere in the volume given us thirty pages more on the same theme, entitled "In Carlyle's Country." As usual, we like Mr. Burroughs best in his outdoor life; and he has never made keener or fresher observations, or uttered better aphorisms, than in this volume. In his pages we miss some traits of the English landscape that are usually very impressive to Americans—the ivy-mantled trees, for instance, in the woods, and the delicious scent of the bean-blossom on farms. In some instances Mr. Burroughs betrays that hastiness of generalization and comparison which has so often involved him in controversy, and which reached its climax when

he asserted that Lowell did not know the difference between dandelions and buttercups on his own lawn. Thus, in this volume, he says that in America there would not be seen, as in England, "a garden of ships and of turnips side by side: haymakers and shipbuilders in adjoining fields" (p. 8)—whereas this is the precise combination that charms the eye along the Maine coast, wherever shipbuilding still flourishes, as at Camden: you see the bow of a new three-masted schooner running up into a farmer's kitchen-garden. But there is not much in this book of that "fury of personality," in Emerson's phrase, which sometimes comes out in Mr. Burroughs; and if there were more of it, we could still pardon the offence, in view of some of the many capital phrases and condensed epigrams that he gives us. When he says that "England is like a seat in the chimney-corner" (p. 30), or "Even in rugged Scotland nature is scarcely wilder than a mountain sheep" (p. 27), or "One does not seem really to have got out of doors till he goes to sea" (p. 289), he says things which nobody else has said so well, and which nobody else is ever likely to say better.

Farrow's Military Encyclopedia: a Dictionary of Military Knowledge. Illustrated with maps and about three thousand wood engravings. By Edward S. Farrow, U. S. Army. Vol. I. Published by the Author at No. 240 Broadway, N. Y.

THIS book, according to the preface, is not "a mere collection of elaborate treatises, but a work to be readily consulted as a dictionary on every military subject." Neither the great heroes of military history, however, nor the more famous battles, are embraced in the scheme, while *anti-mony*, *algebra*, *air-compressors*, *bricks*, *carpentry*, *engines*, *electricity*, *furnaces*, *force*, and like "military" topics are freely admitted. The compiler's sense of proportion may be judged from the fact that *batteries* occupy but one page, *barometers* two and a half; *cavalry* one and a half, *Chinook-jargon* three; *Emery's testing machine* three and a half, *endurance of guns* one. *Files* and *firearms* have each two pages. The easy method adopted for giving a military tenor to certain subjects, and, we suppose, thereby justifying their insertion in a military work, is shown by the following amusing definitions: "Algebra is a branch of pure mathematics much used in the solutions of problems of gunnery." "Calculus is a branch of mathematics which commands by a general method the most difficult problems in gunnery and physics."

The preface also announces that "the several topics are not treated with a view to the technical instruction of those who have to make a special study of particular branches of military knowledge or art"; yet in the next paragraph we learn that "the description and illustration of more than five hundred varieties of gun-machinery, steam-hammers, cranes, etc., constitute a novel feature of the work, to be appreciated by those wishing to investigate the subject of construction, testing, etc." A little further on it is added: "A description of *all* tools and machines found commonly in workshops may prove acceptable to departmental officers on their first going to Government manufacturing establishments." Although not "technical," the Dictionary aims to be "scientifically correct," and it is said that "the scientific department is treated in the most *effulgent* manner." Our astonishment, therefore, continues to increase as we look into the contents. The book bears date "West Point, 1885," and the author appears to have been on duty there in the Tactical Department; yet under *cadet* he gives for the oath of admission one no longer required. The method described

for the simplest analysis of gunpowder is hopelessly confused and unintelligible to those not already familiar with it. In referring to the pressures of exploded gunpowder, Lieutenant Farrow gives Rumford's formula and speaks of the "recent experiments" of Rodman (made in 1857-9), while he makes no mention of the formula now in use, and ignores the much more recent experiments of Bertholet, Abel, and Nobel. After such ignorance of subjects strictly within his profession, we are still hardly prepared for what follows. Under the head *dynamo machine*, we find the astonishing statement that "Oersted in 1820 proved the identity of electricity and magnetism." With a knowledge of this identity, we are not surprised that the author has settled the question of the superiority of dynamo machines for arc-lighting. He pronounces in favor of a machine not figured at all in recent standard works on electricity, and of a company which is little heard of in this country. In the description of arc-lamps no allusion is made to the methods almost entirely used in this country for regulating the carbons, Foucault's being the only regulator referred to. The description of incandescent lamps is very meagre and not exact.

Since the scientific department is treated in such an "effulgent manner," and it is especially stated that "the changes of nomenclature and notation in the science of chemistry which have occurred during the progress of the work are duly noted," we add a few illustrations from this branch. Under *acids* are repeated the obsolete distinctions of thirty years ago, with the closing remark that "a new view is beginning to prevail"; in illustrating the "new view" the formulas for water and sulphuric acid are given as OH and SO₄H. Under *aluminium* we read, "On the whole, considering its valuable properties, this metal has not received such extensive application in the arts as might have been expected." The immense efforts which have been made to render aluminium available for general use are thus calmly ignored. *Ammonia* is defined as a compound of N, H, and O. *Asphalt*, we are laconically told, "is used for ships bottoms." Under the *binary theory* sodium sulphate is formulated, Na SO₄. Under *copper*, equivalent and atomic weights are confused, as also under *electrolysis*. We might continue these examples indefinitely.

The bulk of the book seems to have been compiled, with but little regard to the promise of the preface, out of the material most accessible. It is much to be regretted that initials were not attached to the alleged 5,000 original articles said to have been prepared by specialists at home and abroad, and that the names of the specialists are nowhere given. The 3,000 illustrations embrace full pages of bolts, files, and the ordinary woodcuts of old text-books. The system of cross references appears to be a means of introducing a larger number of subjects and avoiding the labor of selecting what could properly come under a single head.

The Divine Origin of Christianity, indicated by its historical effects. By Richard S. Storrs, D.D., LL.D. 1 vol. 8vo. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

It is not easy to understand the *raison d'être* of this work. In his prefatory note, Dr. Storrs asserts that it is as useless to present arguments to those who deny the possibility of Revelation as to communicate philosophical speculations to dogs. In his first lecture (p. 13) he further tells us, "that only by spiritual experiment of the Gospel can man be assured of its Divine origin, as ultimately proved by its Divine energy." If, therefore, external evidence and argument are useless alike to the believer and the unbeliever, one is somewhat at a loss to appreciate the motive which

has led the eloquent author to bestow on us this portly volume of nearly seven hundred pages, or to guess for whose benefit his labors are undertaken.

The fundamental difficulty which lies at the basis of all such attempts is, that every writer assumes his own individual conception of Christianity to be that which Christ came on earth to reveal to man. To Dr. Storrs, we presume, the faith of three-quarters of Christendom is a travesty of Christianity, in which the ethical precepts of the Gospels and the dogmas of the Pauline Epistles have been used, with more or less intention, as a basis on which to erect a system enabling a hierarchy to gain power and wealth from the superstition of the masses. Now when any one assumes that he is able to declare the purpose of God, and to point out how that purpose has wrought its fulfillment, he must deduce his arguments from the totality of results and not from a narrow and self-limited circle. Notwithstanding the marvellous expansion of European civilization within the last two or three centuries, Christendom embraces to-day only about one-third of the human race. Latin Christianity is the faith of probably a majority of Christians. In Latin Christianity the two events of chief religious significance in our day have been the settlement of century-old quarrels by the adoption of the dogmas of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin and of the Infallibility of the Pope, thus carrying the Catholic Church still further from Gospel simplicity. Similarly, the only sect of Christians who really profess to practise the precepts of Christ—the Society of Friends—is not only one of the smallest but is daily growing smaller. Moreover, the missionary work of Islam is to-day obtaining more converts to Allah than that of Christendom to Christ. Evidently, the time in which Dr. Storrs's conception of Christianity is to become the universal religion is yet far off. We take for granted that "its perfect contemplated supremacy in the world," which is to create a "society as pure as the Sermon on the Mount" (p. 326), refers to the expected supremacy of Dr. Storrs's own church. If it should happen that either the Latin or Greek churches should obtain such supremacy, believers such as Dr. Storrs would be suppressed by Pope or Tzar with the scantiest possible ceremony.

That the world owes an enormous debt to Christianity and to its Founder no thoughtful student of history will deny; that society will in the future grow purer and better we may reverently hope; but nothing is to be gained by shutting our eyes to facts, or by drawing from them distorted conclusions which give us false views as to the past and mislead us as to the future. The fallacy of the *post hoc ergo propter hoc* line of argument which furnishes Doctor Storrs with his material, is easily demonstrated by the facility with which it can be made to prove any required theorem. If Dr. Storrs, for instance, desired to show that Christ was really Satan in disguise, and that Christianity was the exaltation of the power of evil, he could readily point out that when the new religion made its appearance the civilized world enjoyed universal peace and prosperity, and that persecution for opinion's sake was virtually unknown. Then he would draw a hideous sketch of the civilized world after Christianity had been dominant for a thousand years, and had erected a theocratic structure in which the ministers of Christ controlled the life of every man to a degree of which there had been no previous example. In place of the *par Romana* he would picture to us war in its most horrid form, ubiquitous and universal—between factions in cities, between neighboring towns, between every petty noble and his rival, and between jealous nations, while free companies of

brigands ravaged the fairest lands of Europe, and wretched peasants ever and anon arose against their oppressors. In place of religious toleration, moreover, he would exhibit to us the sight of hundreds of virtuous men and women burnt alive simply because they desired to worship in their own way the Author of Good. The fallacy of such an argument need not, we hope, be explained to Dr. Storrs, and yet it is the same as his own. We cheerfully, therefore, admit with him the futility of the whole attempt.

The Ancient Coptic Churches of Egypt. By Alfred J. Butler, M.A., F.S.A., Fellow of Brasenose College, Oxford. 2 vols. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1884.

MR. BUTLER has taken up a subject which has not been consecutively treated before—the antiquities of the old Christian churches of Egypt. The monasteries of the Natrun Valley, it is true, have been described more than once, and are known to English readers by the account of them in Curzon's 'Monasteries of the Levant.' The Church of St. Sergius (Abu Sergeh, or, as Mr. Butler writes it, St. Sargah) and one or two other churches in Old Cairo are noticed in our guide-books. The voluminous French 'Description de l'Égypte,' and the writings of a few travellers—Denon, Pococke, Brugsch, Gau—have given us scattered notes, more or less exact, of the most conspicuous Christian buildings dotted along the valley of the Nile. Yet we know very little of this architecture. The overpowering importance of the remains of pre-Christian art in Egypt, the only art that is commonly thought of as Egyptian; the splendor of the Arabian architecture; the political and social obscurity of the Copts; the purposed inconspicuousness of their churches, hidden from persecution like the nests of field-mice—all these things have diverted the attention of the world from the relics of what is the most archaic, if not the most venerable, of the churches of Christendom.

Mr. Butler's study of the neglected Coptic churches in and near Cairo is therefore essentially a new thing. He has many exceptional qualifications for the work. He is apparently at home in the Arabic and Coptic tongues. He is a well-trained scholar, and has the energy and persistence which belong to his race. One can but admire the persuasive power which, backed, as he says, by politeness and piastres, carried him through obstacles and opposition that would have blocked most travellers. He is a close observer, and has the true antiquarian instinct as well as an unusual faculty of clear statement. In view of this excellent equipment, the reader would fain forget the disqualification with which, as Mr. Butler frankly confesses, he undertook his work—the lack of special knowledge of architecture or ecclesiology. Fortunately he is too much the scholar to content himself with the loose record that usually satisfies the amateur investigator. His book is a foundation for study, a collection of facts from which he does not assume to have deduced the historical conclusions. He goes through the chief Coptic churches of Lower Egypt with minute observation and with every appearance of accuracy. The first of his two handsome volumes treats of the architecture of the churches, and is illustrated with plans. These, excellent as far as they go, make us wish for such other drawings as should give a fuller idea of the structure and architecture of the buildings. Exteriors the churches cannot be said to have; for they are either built about with houses or nestled within lofty walls raised as a necessary protection against Arab plunderers. This also makes them dark, so that it is probably impossible to photograph them; and it was hardly to be expected that any one but an archi-

tect would provide the sections and detailed drawings that are necessary to represent them fully, and answer the many questions that come into the reader's mind as he examines the plans. The second volume is filled with a minute study of the church furniture, vestments, and ritual, more adequately illustrated, and described with the zeal of an antiquary.

But the most observant habit will not replace the sympathetic eye of the specialist, and the reader finds himself wishing that the author had an architect's training. It is not an easy problem, at the best, to trace out the threads of various influence that are woven into the early Christian art of Egypt. The country was as much the meeting-ground of different styles as was Cyprus in the early period of classic art. Byzantine, Syrian, Latin, Arabian influences have worked with whatever native tendencies remained active; and the result, apparently simple enough in its forms, is complex in its character. The fact that the Copts have used the churches and their belongings continuously for ten or fifteen centuries has necessarily, and in spite of their conservatism, complicated the matter by introducing many changes, unrecorded, and not explicable in their isolation by the light of the history of other architecture. We may be thankful to Mr. Butler for what he has given us, and for its good quality, without complaining that he did not give what he did not have or assume to have. We may feel confident that what he has done will not need to be done again, like the work of some less careful explorers who have preceded him, and hope that specialists may be attracted to complete what is so well begun. The work is undertaken none too soon; for (by Mr. Butler's story) age, neglect, and more destructive restoration are doing their best to disfigure and destroy what remains, while the poverty and cupidity of the priests second too well the efforts of English and other lawless curiosity-hunters to strip the churches of whatever can be carried away, even their doors.

Les Anciennes Villes du Nouveau Monde. Voyages d'Exploration au Mexique et dans l'Amérique centrale. Par Désiré Charnay. Paris: Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1885. 4to, pp. 469. 214 gravures et 19 cartes ou plans.

THIS is not Mr. Charnay's first appearance in the field of American archaeology, neither, we are happy to say, is it to be his last. Some twenty years ago he made a similar venture, and though the volume which he then published can hardly be called a success, yet the views which accompanied it are among the best representations we have of the deserted "cities" of Mexico and Central America. Since then it has been his rare good fortune to make a second visit to these same regions, and, in the present elaborate work, he gives us a very satisfactory account of these ruins, together with certain conclusions as to their "unity and modernity," which would commend themselves to our acceptance by reason of their simplicity and probability, even if there were not other evidence of their truth. As a matter of fact, however, there is no lack of such evidence; and while we may not always agree with Mr. Charnay in his speculations as to the use or uses for which these buildings were originally intended, we are very sure that there are few who will follow him in the comparison which he institutes between the architectural methods that prevailed in Mexico and in Central America, or who will study these ruins in the light of history, but will be ready to admit that they are "relatively modern," and that they belong to one and the same stage of development.

This our author calls "Toltec," and the term

would be unobjectionable if, instead of being used to designate a particular people, it were intended to be merely descriptive of a certain phase of civilization. Such, however, is not the case, for we are given to understand that all these ruined pueblos were the work of the identical tribe or tribes which built Tula, Teotihuacan, and other places in and around the valley of Mexico, and which are supposed to have been driven thence some time during the eleventh or twelfth century, and to have moved southward, carrying with them their arts, their industries, and their religious culture. This, of course, is not impossible, but the myths and traditions upon which our author depends to support this theory do not afford adequate evidence, "historical" or otherwise, of the fact; and the similarity in the sculptures and in the architecture, while it indicates a parity of development in the people who built Tula, Palenqué, Uxmal, etc., does not necessarily carry with it any inference as to the tribe or family to which they belonged. Admit that the nations or confederacies which held these regions at the time of the conquest had reached about the same stage of progress, as was unquestionably the case with the tribes that lived east of the Mississippi and south of the St. Lawrence and the lakes, and these ruins can be satisfactorily accounted for without the intervention of a *deus ex machina* in the shape of a band of civilization-bearing fugitives.

Who these Toltecs were, and what their civilization, are questions which our author proposes to take up at some future time. Meanwhile he assures us that they were Nahuas, and that they came from the eastern part of Asia. To the first of these propositions we do not object, and it is possible that the second is also true, though this would depend somewhat on the sense in which it is to be taken; but when we are told that these people "had nothing in common with the autochthonous populations [*sic*] of America," it is time to call a halt. Not only do we not admit this, but we hold the very reverse to be true; and while we are willing to concede that this "Toltec" civilization may have been colored by Asiatic influences, we think it would be a grave mistake to suppose, as our author apparently does, that it is a sort of mosaic, made up of elements (*souvenir*) contributed by "the tribes of the Antilles on one side, and by the Polynesians, Chinese, Japanese, and Malays on the other." Resemblances there may have been and probably were, but derivation is such a different matter that, when called on to admit it, we prefer to await the result of the future investigations which we are promised.

During the course of this visit Mr. Charnay made certain explorations at Tula and Teotihuacan, which convinced him that the method of building and the style of ornamentation that prevailed at these two sites did not differ materially from those which existed in regions further to the south and east; and this opinion was confirmed by his explorations at Lorillard City, a ruin in Guatemala which he was the first to visit and describe. Of these places, as well as of the widely-known deserted pueblos of Chichen Itza, Palenqué, etc., his accounts are very full and explicit; and they are, withal, so profusely illustrated by maps, plans, and engravings, as to make it an easy task to follow him in the effort to trace the resemblances which exist in the sculptures and in the architecture of these different localities. That a few of these illustrations—as, for instance, those on pages 49 and 427—are of a somewhat fanciful character, is perhaps true; and there can be no doubt that those personal adventures, which are repeated here in the same shape in which they were originally published some twenty years ago, might well have been omitted. But, after all, these de-

fects are of a trivial nature; and, as they cannot possibly do any harm, we can afford to overlook them in view of all that is good in the volume.

In a few well-chosen sentences the work is dedicated to Mr. Pierre Lorillard, of New York, to whose liberality much of the success of the expedition was due.

Text-Book of Popular Astronomy for the Use of Colleges, Academies, and High-Schools. By William G. Peck, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Mechanics and Astronomy in Columbia College. A. S. Barnes & Co.

PROFESSOR PECK is the author of several text-books on different branches of pure and applied mathematics. They possess the common characteristic of being all short. This brevity, however, is not attained by the omission of any topics usually included in much larger treatises—nothing that the title-page leads one to expect is passed over; but no words are wasted. The definitions of technical terms are generally concise, but given with all the accuracy and clearness of which the English language seems susceptible. The illustrations are few but apt, and, having done so much, the Professor expects the teacher and pupil to do the rest. As text-books to be used under the direction of a competent teacher they are admirable. But if a student attempted to study alone one of the branches of science covered by a text-book of Professor Peck's, he would probably find it to his advantage to choose a larger book in which the same thing was presented in several different forms, in which there was greater fulness of illustration, and in which misapprehensions were more frequently anticipated and guarded against.

Professor Peck calls his work "Popular Astronomy." The epithet "popular" has been so often used of late years as a cover for superficiality, vagueness, and unscientific methods—in short, quackery—that it frequently excites suspicion when one sees it on the title-page. But in the case of this book such a suspicion would be entirely unfounded. It is eminently scientific, and marked by the precision and accuracy which characterize the author's other text-books. Such portions of the work as necessarily involve mathematical principles and formulæ (and they constitute but a small portion of the whole) are printed in a smaller type, and so managed that they may be passed over with as little detriment as possible by those who lack the ability or inclination to study them. The rest of the work, to which, we presume, the epithet "popular" is intended more especially to apply, contains about one-half as much as the "Popular Astronomy" of Professor Newcomb. This more limited extent, and the desire to make the work conform to all the requirements of a text-book, render necessary the great abridgment, or entire omission, of those discussions and speculations and those historical details which, among other things, make Professor Newcomb's treatise one of the most charming of scientific works. Nevertheless, many of the chapters in Professor Peck's book will be found very interesting to the general reader, as, for instance, the chapter on comets and meteors.

Religion in England from 1800 to 1850. A History, with a Postscript on Subsequent Events. By John Stoughton, D.D. 2 vols. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

DR. STOUGHTON does not make his first appearance now as an ecclesiastical historian. His "History of Religion in England," completed a few years ago, began with the Long Parliament and ended with the eighteenth century. It was literally a voluminous production, extending through six volumes. But it received, as it de-

served, high praise from critics of whose good opinion Dr. Stoughton might be justly proud. He has not so large a canvas now as he had then, and his situations are not so interesting and dramatic; but he has made a sensible and instructive book with such material as he could command. He has evidently been a diligent and careful student of the century's ecclesiastical development, and he has arranged his narrative in a convenient and effective manner. Decidedly evangelical in his own opinions, his liberality is remarkable, and it is no easy matter to infer from his history his immediate sectarian environment, so fairly does he deal with every shade of doctrine and ecclesiastical observance. He has eyes to see a man in whatever doctrinal disguise. In point of style his only attractions are clearness and simplicity. There is no fine writing. The substance of his narration, too, is plain matter of fact. There is little penetration, no philosophy of development; he is content with obvious causes and superficial aspects. To know how differently the same facts can be presented one has but to turn to the Rev. Brooke Herford's 'Story of Religion in England,' a book written for young people, but one that an octogenarian might read with profit and delight.

Dr. Stoughton's history is not dry, but it is generally cold. His opening chapters deal with the political relations of religion, and conclude with Catholic Emancipation. He then passes to the Episcopal Church, to which five chapters are devoted. The chapter on the Presbyterians will be astonishing to many Unitarians in America, as the English Presbyterians of the century are almost all Unitarians. In his Presbyterian chapter we are all the time in Unitarian company. The Independents, to whom the next following chapter is devoted, have kept themselves more free from heresy. In short, the development of Independency (Congregationalism) and Presbyterianism in this country and in England has proceeded in opposite directions. Three chapters are allotted to the Methodists; to the Whitefield Calvinists, the Wesleyans, and New Connection a chapter each. The Hicksite heresy is the point of interest in the Quaker chapter. The chapter on Irving and his Church is especially attractive. It was Dr. Stoughton's happy fortune to know Irving personally, to hear the famous "tongues," and to receive his blessing.

The second volume treats of a variety of interesting matters: the Reform Bill, the Tractarian Movement, "Typical Churchmen," Broad Churchmen, the relations of Establishment and Dissent, efforts looking towards a closer unity of the sects, etc., etc. The New Jerusalem Church brings up the rear; not in a fashion that will suit the Swedenborgian mind. There is a "Postscript" of some fifty pages, indicating the tendency of thought and organization for the last five and thirty years.

Birds in the Bush. By Bradford Torrey. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 300.

MR. TORREY'S little book consists of eleven essays, most of which originally saw the light in the *Atlantic Monthly*, only two of them being now for the first time published. These are "An Owl's Head Holiday" and "A Month's Music." When, a year or two since, the essays here given under the titles "On Boston Common," "Bird Songs," and "Character in Feathers," appeared, it became evident that a new "poet-naturalist" had arisen among us; one, too, who not only loved birds, but knew them "in the books" as well as in the bush, and was rarely to be caught tripping in his statements, either as regards the names or the habits of birds. Mr. Torrey's literary style is chaste and simple. As a keen and discriminating observer he is entitled

to high rank as a field ornithologist, while to this he adds a happy way of telling what he sees. But a series of essays on bird-life, no matter how distinctive and delightful in their effect as read separately at intervals, are apt to seem repetitive and monotonous when read connectively in book form, and this is to some extent the case here; yet we can but thank the author for having brought them together. The same bird appears again and again in the different papers, yet each time something new is said about it—additional traits of character are depicted, some fresh feature of song or habit, which, though the author may not have been the first to discover, he is often the first to relate. His book has, therefore, a value beyond that of a pleasant recital of what a poetic layman has found to say about the birds any one may meet with, in his daily walks in city parks or country lanes and woodlands. Of the many quotable passages, the following will serve as an indication of Mr. Torrey's style and manner of treating his subject:

"Glad as we are of the society of the goldfinches and red-polls at this time of the year, we cannot easily rid ourselves of a degree of solicitude for their comfort; especially if we chance to come upon them after sunset on some bitterly cold day, and mark with what a nervous haste they snatch here and there a seed, making the utmost of the few remaining minutes of twilight. They will go to bed hungry and cold, we think, and were surely better off in a milder clime. But, if I am to judge from my own experience, the snow buntings awaken no such emotions. Arctic explorers by instinct, they come to us only with real Arctic weather, and almost seem to be themselves a part of the snow-storm with which they arrive. . . . It gives a lively touch to the imagination to overtake these beautiful strangers in the middle of Beacon Street; particularly if one has lately been reading about them in some narrative of Siberian travel. Coming from so far, associating in flocks, with costumes so becoming and yet so unusual, they might be expected to attract universal notice, and possibly get into the newspapers. But there is a fashion about seeing; and of a thousand persons who take a Sunday promenade over the Milldam while these tourists from the North Pole are there, it is doubtful whether a dozen are aware of their presence. Birds feeding in the street? Yes, yes; English sparrows, of course; we haven't any other birds in Boston nowadays, you know."

The Social Philosophy and Religion of Comte.

By Edward Caird, LL.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. Macmillan & Co. 1885.

THIS work originally appeared in the *Contemporary Review*, in 1879, as a series of four articles, and is now republished without material alteration. A few paragraphs have been rewritten, some verbal changes made, and a preface added. It deals mainly, though not exclusively, with the social and religious aspects of Positivism as developed in the later writings of the founder of the Religion of Humanity. The discussion of the nature and methods of the sciences contained in the 'Cours de philosophie positive' is referred to only so far as is necessary for the understanding of the social and religious reconstruction found in the 'Système de politique positive' and 'Synthèse subjective.'

Professor Caird agrees with the orthodox, or complete, Positivists in holding that there is no marked division between the earlier and later writings of Comte. He states that "the changes observable in the latter do not amount, as has sometimes been represented, to a sudden revolution, but are rather the last development of tendencies which had been gaining ground in Comte's mind as his work advanced, and gradually carrying him away from his original principles, or at least greatly modifying their first significance." He is also in harmony with the followers of Comte in regarding the later writings as more original and more important than the earlier. He is of

opinion that "the ultimate interest of Comte's philosophy lies in the success or failure of this attempt of his to find a new satisfaction for those higher wants of humanity which Theology and Metaphysics, or, as I should prefer to say, Religion and Philosophy, have so long been supposed to satisfy." He endeavors to show that Comte's philosophy fails to furnish mankind with such a satisfaction. The novelty which he claims for his criticism is that it "seeks to show that the true synthesis of philosophy must be objective as well as subjective, and that there can be no religion of Humanity which is not also a religion of God. And this means that it is logically impossible to go beyond the merely individualistic point of view with which Comte started, except on the assumption that the intelligence of man is, or involves, a universal principle of knowledge."

Professor Caird, while seeking to show that Comte's system is inconsistent with itself, that his theory of historical progress is insufficient, and that his social idea is imperfect, does not fail to express his admiration for the many valuable elements in his historical and social theories. His thorough knowledge of the system he criticises is evident on every page. We have observed but a single error, and that literal. In giving an account of the schism which occurred among the orthodox Positivists in 1878, he speaks of M. Lafitte, the Director of Positivism, as "M. Lafitte." Whatever opinion may be held concerning the points discussed by Professor Caird, no one can fail to see that he has produced a valuable contribution to the study of a system which no student of sociology can afford to leave unexamined.

Society in London. By a Foreign Resident. Harper's Handy Series, No. 2.

WE do not know that 'Society in London' was prepared under the direction of the editor of the *Nouvelle Revue*, but, in any case, it is an imitation, and a very poor one, of the writings of "Count Paul Vasili." The only theory on which such a book can be justified is, that a foreigner feels at liberty to write without the reserve which various considerations impose upon the permanent members of a society, even with respect to facts generally known and anecdotes which have real humor to make them interesting, as well as the attraction common to all varieties of forbidden fruit. But 'Society in London' is not only destitute of originality or individuality of judgment on the part of the author, but his disclosures, such as they are, have not even the merit of novelty: the book reads, in fact, as if the compiler had exhausted his powers of composition in getting up the titles of the chapters, and, for the rest, had simply strung together paragraphs from the *World and Truth*. Judged even by the standard which the compiler would choose, the work is a failure because it is dull. Its sins against propriety are trifling compared with those of its French models, but what it gains in respectability it loses in vivacity, so that it is not even amusing.

The Man versus the State: Containing "The New Toryism," "The Coming Slavery," "The Sins of Legislators," and "The Great Political Superstitions." By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co.

MR. HERBERT SPENCER is a consistent advocate of the largest individual liberty as against state interference. His views do not substantially differ from those of Mill in his 'Essay on Liberty'; but he has invented a number of new and ingenious arguments to fortify the position of those who think that democracy tends to sap the foundations of individualism, of character, of self-

respect, and of freedom. The history of mankind is the history of the emancipation of the individual from tyranny; and having emancipated himself from tribe, family, nobles, kings, emperors, and other species of despots, he now runs the risk of reenslavement by a new oppressor, a majority of his fellows. The proof of this tendency Mr. Spencer finds partly in the growth of the belief that the majority can do no wrong, and partly in a good deal of recent legislation in England interfering with the right of contract. He might have taken still more striking instances from the history of this country. The granger laws passed by the Western States and the prohibitory statutes go far beyond anything attempted in England, and the use of the caucus and of the "previous question" to stifle minorities and to rebuke individualism have been at different times marked features of American life. In fact, we doubt very much whether it may not be said that the American has, to a certain extent, lost his sense of individuality, and is conscious of himself chiefly as one of a crowd, and of his acts as parts of the general movement of society. We see the results about us of a long reign of equality and democracy, and we enjoy in perfection the tyranny of universal suffrage. As we have nothing like a crown or aristocracy to impede us in the race, there seems nothing to prevent our reaching the goal, whatever the goal is, sooner than any one else.

The goal would appear to be some form of communism, in which the individual, his tastes, opinions, and prejudices, would be ruthlessly sacrificed to the supposed interests of the whole; and as the origin of society, property, and civilization is now known to be communal, it would seem as if the law of evolution, of which we are just beginning to get glimpses, in reality involved a vicious circle quite as bad (because apparently grounded in the laws of nature and inevitable) as any of which political pessimism has ever dreamed. Our coming slavery would be much worse than primitive communism, because that was not felt as such, while our communists really mean to impose a yoke on the individual and his recognized rights coterminous with that of territorial sovereignty, and from which he cannot free himself except by death, or at best by expatriation to some country which has not reached the communistic stage. If such a tendency as this exists, it exists everywhere in the modern world, and the inference is that our

descendants with a taste for old-fashioned "individualism" will see civilization, or what remains of it, finally snuffed out in the garish light of the new communistic era.

There are one or two criticisms upon this gloomy outlook which do not seem to have occurred to Mr. Spencer. One is that human knowledge is not yet in such a state that we are able to predict the general course of civilization. We may see a tendency, and complain of it, and resist it, and do our best to counteract it; but that the general sum of all the tendencies of the age is toward the suppression of the individual, or the extinction of individualism by means of democracy or equality, must be open to question. A few years ago it was generally believed that mankind was tending toward an era of universal peace. Who believes it now? Again, we know that history thus far has been marked by the steady increase of individuality, of private right, of liberty, and at the same time by the growth of law, of government, and of territorial sovereignty. Nobody has proved, and we doubt if anybody can prove in the present state of science, what the general resultant of the social forces now at work is to be. Another thing which Mr. Spencer leaves out of view is that a great deal of the "tyranny of the majority," of which people complain, has nothing to do with majorities or minorities at all, but is the outcry, in the midst of increasing materialism, of sensitive, refined, educated people against the materialist tendencies of our day and generation. What angers them is not that their fellows are not individual, so much as that their individualism is repulsive. There are any quantity of railroad kings, bosses, and other types who have individuality enough, but their individuality marks a period engrossed in material pursuits and forgetful of higher interests. But we know perfectly well that one of the fundamental doctrines of political economy is that the basis of the highest civilization is, and must be, the accumulation of wealth by uncivilized people.

Equal political rights, or universal suffrage, is a mere governmental device, which cannot produce equality. If we can imagine all individuals to be equally good, just, and powerful, there would not only be much to be said for communism, but communism would probably seem, as it originally did in primitive communities, like an ultimate fact of nature. But as civilization and progress tend perpetually to produce

inequalities, and the stronger, wiser, and more prudent will always get more and more power, can a political device like equal suffrage stand in the way of this law of development? Democracy or communism is no more final than royalty, or aristocracy, or feudalism; and the only effect of pretending that "one vote is as good as another" will be that individualism in politics will take the form of corruption, as it sometimes does in this city, or "intimidation" or "influence" where government has been brought as near the communistic level as possible. There is a vast amount of aggressive individualism in this city. But the wealth and power of the world will ever permanently pass into the hands of the ignorant and poor, is almost a contradiction in terms. As an analysis of a temporary tendency, Mr. Herbert Spencer's book is very interesting; but we are far from thinking it a complete or adequate treatment of the subject. Indeed, it bears marks throughout of haste and superficiality, especially in the remarks on law, which show that he misunderstands Austin fundamentally.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Agullar, Grace. *Home Influence. A Tale for Mothers and Daughters.* Harper's Franklin Square Library. Allen, G. *Imbroglia. A Drama.* San Francisco: Samuel Carson & Co. Aldrich, T. S. *The Stillwater Tragedy.* Riverside Paper Series. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents. Appleton's General Guide to the United States and Canada. 1885. D. Appleton & Co. \$2.50. Anstey, F. *The Hated Venus. A Farical Romance.* D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents. Bird, Isabella L. *A Lady's Life in the Rocky Mountains. [Travellers' Series.]* G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents. Bullen, A. H. *The Works of Thomas Middleton.* In 8 vols. Vols. I, II, III, IV. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3 per volume. Carlyle, Thomas. *Sartor Resartus: Past and Present; The Diamond Necklace; Mirabeau.* J. B. Alden. Child, Prof. F. J. *English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Part III.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$5. Conway, H. *Carrington's Gift. [Leisure Hour Series.]* Henry Holt & Co. \$1. Darmesteter, Prof. J. *The Mahdi, Past and Present. Harper's Handy Series.* 25 cents. Dexter, F. B. *Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College, with Annals of the College History.* October, 1701-May, 1745. Henry Holt & Co. Froebel, F. *The Education of Man.* A. Lovell & Co. Hake, A. E. *The Journals of Major-General C. G. Gordon, at Kartoum. Portrait, Maps, and Illustrations.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2. Fry, General J. B. *New York and the Conscriptio of 1863. A Chapter in the History of the Civil War.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. Gardner, Mrs. Charles A. *English History in Rhyme. Revised ed.* The Author. Geiger, Dr. W. *Civilization of the Eastern Iranians in Ancient Times. With an Introduction on the Avesta Religion.* Vol. I. Ethnography and Social Life. London: Henry Frowde. Green, Anna Katherine. *A Strange Disappearance.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. 20 cents. Halsey, F. R. *Raphael Morghen's Engraved Works. A Descriptive Catalogue.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$7.50. Hare, A. J. C. *Studies in Russia.* George Routledge & Sons. \$2. Hare, A. J. C. *Wanderings in Spain.* With illustrations. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.25. Pompell—illustrated. John Ireland.

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